

Pride and Prejudice: Evidence from the "Promised Land"*

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Abstract

There are large and persistent ethnic-related disparities among Israeli-born Jews on many indicators of social welfare and economic success. We use non-random sorting into interethnic marriage and historical Sephardic-Ashkenazi variations in persons' surnames to evaluate the causal impact of Sephardic affiliation on labor market outcomes. Using the Israeli Census of 1995, we estimate the effect of a Sephardic affiliation on wages by comparing the log hourly wages of Israeli Jewish males born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers (SA), who are more likely to carry a Sephardic surname, with the outcomes of Israeli Jewish males born to Ashkenazi fathers and Sephardic mothers (AS). We find that SA workers earn significantly less than their AS counterparts, despite having better educational achievements, higher scores on cognitive tests, and higher levels of parental education and earnings than their AS peers – suggesting that our estimates provide lower bounds for the impact of ethnic affiliation on wages. Jewish females born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers (SA) are as likely to carry a Sephardic surname as their AS counterparts, as both groups marry Sephardic and Ashkenazi men roughly in equal proportions, and most Israeli women change their surnames to their husbands' names once married.

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Consistent with our interpretation of the results for males, we find no difference between the hourly wages of AS and SA women.

1 Introduction

Half a century after Becker's (1957) seminal work on the economics of discrimination and prejudice and the pioneering work by Phelps (1972) and Arrow (1973) on theories of statistical discrimination and its self-confirming effects (Loury, 1977, 1981)¹, it is well recognized that ethnic diversity has profound and far-reaching implications on social welfare and economic achievements, both within societies - by affecting the relative economic outcomes of different groups, and between economies - by influencing national rates of economic growth.²

Today, four decades after the passage of *Brown v. Board of Education*, the Civil Right Act and related anti-discrimination legislation of the 1960s, there are still large disparities between Blacks and Whites in the United States on many indicators of social and economic outcomes, including educational achievements (Jencks and Phillips 1998), earnings (Bound and Freeman, 1992; Smith and Welch 1989), and health (Chandra and Skinner, 2003; Almond, Chay and Greenstone, 2008).

Most micro empirical studies on labor discrimination focus on social and economic disparities between black and whites in the United States. A large body of research (summarized in Altonji and Blank, 1999; Neal, 2007) documents that, according to available measures, blacks are less skilled than whites and earn less than their white counterparts. Yet, the source of differences in educational achievements, wage rates and earnings is not well established.

Ethnic stereotypes and group differences in educational achievements, earnings, and social outcomes are not limited to the United States. The Jewish society in Israel is characterized by an ethnic cleavage commonly recognized on the basis of geo-cultural

¹Followed by Durlauf (1992) and Benabou (1993, 1994), who emphasized the feedback impact of pre-labor market discrimination on the accumulation of human capital by future generations and the work by Coate and Loury (1993) who studied the implications of statistical discrimination through self-fulfilling prophecies when information is imperfect.

²Easterly's and Levine's (1997) documents the correlation between country level ethnic diversity and a range of economic and public policy outcomes 1965-1990.

Knack and Keefer (1997) find that a standard deviation increase in country-level trust predicts an increase in economic growth of more than one-half of a standard deviation.

La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, Shleifer, and Vishny (1997) report that a standard deviation increase in trust increases judicial efficiency and reduces government corruption by 0.7 and 0.3 of a standard deviation respectively

origin between two groups: those of European or American descent, largely the "Ashkenazim" ("Ashkenaz" meaning "Germany" in Medieval Hebrew, denoting their Central European base), the dominant group in Israeli society; and the Asian-Africans, largely the "Sephardim" ("Sepharad" meaning "Spain" or "Iberia" in Hebrew, denoting their Spanish and Portuguese base).³ In modern Israeli Hebrew, the term "Sephardim" typically refers to Jews of Arabic or Persian descent, whereas, the term "Ashkenazim" refers to descendants of Jews from Germany, Poland and Austria and is often applied to all Jews of European background living in Israel.⁴

Despite religious similarities, integration through the educational system, joint military service and "collective consciousness" as well as genetic similarities between Ashkenazi and Non-Ashkenazi Jews⁵, there are large and persistent ethnic related disparities among Israeli-born Jews on many indicators of social welfare and economic success, including educational achievements (Lewin-Epstein and Semyonov, 1993; Cohen and Haberfeld, 1998), earnings (Haberfeld and Cohen, 2006), juvenile delinquency and adult criminal involvement (Fishman et al., 1984; Ajzenstadt, 2005). By the late 1990s, half a century after the establishment of the state of Israel, the "Sephardic-Ashkenazi" wage gaps had become as large as the black-white wage gaps in the United States. According to the latest Israeli census data (1995), Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa ("Sephardim") earned only two-thirds the wages of their American-European ("Ashkenazim") counterparts, and 10 percentage points less after conditioning on education, potential experience, and region of residence (Table 1). These figures are similar to the black-white wage gaps in the United States during

³Ethnicity is a central dimension in Israel. In fact Israel (within the 1967 borders) can be described most succinctly as dual (see Lewin-Epstein and Semyonov, 1986) on two levels: Israeli Jews versus Israeli Arabs, and, within the Jewish population, "Ashkenazim" and "Sephardim", as well as between secular and Orthodox Jews.

⁴For religious practice, Jews of these communities are considered to be "Sephardim", meaning "Jews of the Spanish rite". In the same way, Ashkenazim, means for religious purposes, "Jews of the German rite", whether or not their families actually originate in Germany.

⁵The emerging genetic picture, from recent research using maternally-inherited mitochondrial DNA, points to DNA similarities between Ashkenazi and Non-Ashkenazi Jews. See Behar, Metspalu, Kivisild, Achilli, Hadid, Tzur, Pereira, Amorim, Quintana-Murci, Majamaa, Herrnstadt, Howell, Balanovsky, Kutuev, Pshenichnov, Gurwitz, Bonne-Tamir, Torroni, Villems, and Skorecki, "The Matrilineal Ancestry of Ashkenazi Jewry: Portrait of a Recent Founder Event." *American Journal of Human Genetics* 78 (2006): 487-497. Genetic data also demonstrate the Middle Eastern origin of the Ashkenazim, who share specific alleles with other Middle Eastern Jewish and non-Jewish groups. Southern and Central European populations subsequently contributed other alleles to the Ashkenazim. For example, disequilibrium analysis of human leukocyte antigens DR and DQ indicates that Ashkenazi Jews are most closely related to other Jews, next most closely to other Mediterranean populations, and less closely to Central Europeans, though carrying some Central European alleles. See Kelly Owens and Mary-Claire King, "Genomic Views of Human History" *Science* 286, 451 (1999).

the mid 1990s, as reported by Altonji and Blank (1999).⁶

The large disparities in economic success are well reflected in the marriage market.⁷ Most marriages are within the “Ashkenazi” and the “Sephardic” groups (Goldscheider, 2002; Table 3a). Similar to the US, the odds of interethnic union increase with couples’ educational attainment (Qian 1997 for the US; Table 3b) and there is less ethnic disparity in measures of educational achievements and economic success among the population if interethnic couples. Throughout the last centuries the Ashkenazim and Sephardim developed distinct cultural traditions, reflected in religious practice and the use of different international “Jewish” languages (“Yiddish” and “Ladino” spoken by Ashkenazi and Sephardic respectively).⁸

One of the most notable ethnic-cultural characteristics in modern Israel is a person’s family name. Family names have great importance in Judaism, as they often indicate a person’s genealogy or place of birth. Sephardic and Ashkenazi Jews have different and distinct surnames passed from father to son. Today, most Jewish family names in Israel are either Sephardic or Ashkenazi. Although Israeli Jews of mixed background are increasingly common, partly due to intermarriage between Ashkenazi and non-Ashkenazi partners, a person’s last name is still a fair proxy of his or her ethnic affiliation, as the vast majority of unions are between individuals of the same origin. An illuminating example of the popular association of ethnic-related surnames with economic outcomes and social success, employed by the Justice system, is the “Buzaglo test”. Buzaglo - a well-recognized typical Moroccan-Jewish last name - is a placeholder for a simple lower-class citizen. The “Buzaglo test”, a coin termed by Aharon Barak in 1976, then Attorney General and later Israeli Chief Justice, is used to determine whether public figures, when accused or suspected of a crime, are treated in the same manner as Buzaglo - a lower class Sephardic citizen - would have been treated.

The ethnic-origin-related genealogy of family names passed from father to son and the non-random sorting into interethnic unions within the Israeli Jewish society provides an informative setting for studying the role of stereotypes and prejudice in Israeli

⁶Altonji and Blank (1999) find that in 1995 black male workers earned about 20 percent less than white male workers if no controllers were included and 12 percent less once education, potential experience and region were controlled.

⁷"Ethnicity", is one of the top 10 characteristics on the popular Jewish singles network JDate.com (Figure W5 in the web appendix)

⁸The best-known of these differences relates to the holiday of Passover, where Sephardic Jews may eat legumes, rice, corn, peanuts and beans during this holiday, while Ashkenazi Jews prohibit these foods.

labor markets. Using offspring born to mixed couples, we form treatment and comparison groups that possess similar measures of cognitive achievements, educational attainment and family background - *but* different ethnic surnames. Israeli Jews born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers (SA) are more likely to carry a Sephardic surname and be perceived as Sephardic by the labor markets than Israeli Jews born to Ashkenazi fathers and Sephardic mothers (AS). By comparing the labor market outcomes of Israeli Jews born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers (SA) with the labor market outcomes of their "Ashkenazi" counterparts (AS) we aim to shed light on the impact of taste, prejudice and ethnic stereotypes on labor market outcomes of equally productive members of a society.

Recent studies examined the impact of distinctively ethnic names on labor market opportunities and life cycle outcomes. While field experimental studies that use name labels to manipulate perception found that resumes with traditional names are substantially more likely to lead to job interviews than identical resumes with distinctively minority-sounding names (Jowell and Prescott-Clarke, 1970; Brown and Gay, 1985; Bart et al., 1997; Bertrand and Mullainathan, 2004), Fryer and Levitt (2004) recently found no evidence that proxies for pay are worse for those with ethnic names after controlling for social background. As pointed out by Heckman (1998), it was Becker's (1957) insight that the impact of ethnic-related discrimination is determined by prejudice and stereotypes by firms that employ ethnic workers, rather than by the average levels of taste for discrimination. Hence, despite the mounting experimental evidence suggesting that ethnic names serve as a hindrance in the labor market, the presence of discriminatory employers may not be sufficiently large to affect job market outcomes across the board. Since neither studies evaluate the impact of ethnic names on labor market outcomes, the extent to which ethnic disparities in pay reflect discrimination is yet to be conclusively determined.

Using the Israeli Census of 1995, the first to contain both fathers' and mothers' country of birth (for those born in Israel), we estimate the impact of ethnic affiliation within the Israeli Jewish society on pay by comparing the log hourly wages of Israeli Jews born to SA parents with the wages of Israeli Jews born to AS parents.

Sorting into interethnic marriages is neither exogenous to peoples' human capital nor to their labor market outcomes (Becker 1973, 1974, 1981). Assortative mating on measures of economic success and human capital suggest that ethnic related differences among those who choose to marry outside their ethnic group should be much smaller than the measured ethnic gaps in the population. Consistent with Becker's theory, re-

cent studies find the interracial marriage tends to be educationally homogenous (Qian 1997). This also holds in Israeli Jewish society. We find that among interethnic couples, gaps are remarkably smaller. Offspring to mixed couples fall in between AA and SS on a host of family background and achievement characteristics, similar to recent findings in the US (Fryer et al., 2008). Nevertheless data on individuals' educational achievements and family backgrounds indicate that the contrast between those born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers, the "treatment group", and their "Ashkenazi-Sephardic" counterparts, the "comparison group", provides a natural variation for estimating the causal effect of ethnic public identity, signaled by persons' family names, on workers' wages. Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers in mixed couples achieve higher levels of education and earn more than their mixed-couple, AS counterparts. Offspring to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers have (slightly) better educational achievements and do better on cognitive achievements tests than their "Ashkenazi-Sephardic" peers. Thus, it would be safe to conclude that the treatment-control contrast within Israeli Jews born to interethnic unions truly reflects a lower bound for the impact of ethnic affiliation on wages.

Hence it is the *non random sorting* into marriage - a corner stone of marriage economic theory - that generates treatment (SA) and control (AS) groups. With this setup in mind we turn to the data. We find that full-time, full-year Israeli male workers born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers (SA) earn about 8 percent less than their Ashkenazi counterparts (AS), which is about two-thirds of the "unexplained" ethnic gap in pays between offspring born into intra-ethnic unions.

Large body of research documents the importance social networks as sources of employment information (Rees, 1996; Montgomery, 1991; Munshi, 2003) having stronger impact in migrant communities (Borjas, 1992). The network not only finds jobs for its members, it also channels them into higher paying occupations. Indeed AA workers are overrepresented in better paid occupation than all other groups. Yet, SA are placed in higher paying occupations than their AS counterparts. Accounting for occupations fixed effects we find the hourly wage gaps to be slightly larger.

The gap in pays might reflect other factors than discrimination. Although all available measures indicate that SA perform better on cognitive achievements tests than their AS counterparts, this may not be true for non-cognitive traits. Israeli Jews from European or American origin are more likely to practice a secular western life style than Israeli Jews from Asian or African origin. Sephardic and Ashkenazi Jews who migrated to Israel from Asia-Africa and Europe-America respectively may possess

different norms and beliefs, manifesting their native culture. Recently, Fernández and Fogil (2006) and Fernández (2007) show that woman's heritage, proxied by her parents' country of origin, has non-negligible impact on fertility and labor supply among second-generation American women. Hence, Sephardic-Ashkenazi wage gaps might reflect latent cultural differences rather than ethnic based discrimination.

Although our setting partially accounts for that by focusing on offspring to inter-ethnic unions, the experience of growing up in an AS family might be different than the experience of being raised by a Sephardic father and an Ashkenazi mother (SA). We find that Sephardic Jews are more likely to observe traditional religious practice than their European-American counterparts. Nevertheless we find no difference in our proxies for religious practice between the AS and the SA groups. If SA relative wages reflect discrimination based on ethnic affiliation signaled by family name then we should find much smaller gaps between SA and AS women, since most married women in Israel carry their spouses' surnames. Israeli Jewish females born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers (SA) have almost the same likelihood of carrying a Sephardic surname as their AS counterparts, as both groups marry Sephardic and Ashkenazi men in roughly equal proportions. Using the 1995 census data employed for women we find, consistent with our interpretation of the males' results, almost no difference between the mean log hourly wages of SA and AS working women.

Ethnic discrimination might reflect both the outcome of a "taste for discrimination" or the result of ethnic stereotypes.⁹ Fershtman and Gneezy (2001) estimate the effect of Ashkenazi and Sephardic affiliation on behavior in the "trust game". In a set of laboratory experiments run on Israeli undergraduate students, in which "Sephardic" and "Ashkenazi" sounding-names were employed to signal persons' ethnic backgrounds, they found a systematic mistrust toward Sephardic Jews, a pattern perpetuated also by Sephardic Jews.

Do Israeli employers statistically discriminate among young workers on the basis of easily observable characteristics such as ethnic affiliation? If so, do they begin to treat them more equally as they learn about their productivity? If indeed the reduced-form impact reflects stereotypes rather than prejudice, the coefficients on the easily observed variables (by the employers) should fall over persons' working cycle as workers productivity is revealed (Altonji and Pierret 2001). Hence, the impact of

⁹Levine, Levkov and Rubinstein (2008) find that banking deregulation reduced the racial wage gap by spurring the entry of nonfinancial firms. Consistent with Becker's taste for discrimination theory, they find the impact of competition on the wage gap to be particularly large in states with a comparatively high degree of racial bias.

Sephardic affiliation over the life cycle might shed light on the underlying reasons for unequal treatment of Israeli Jews born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers in Israeli labor markets. Employed with this insight in mind, we turn back to the data. A first glance at the underlying discrimination mechanism using direct measures of labor market outcomes reveals that Sephardic affiliation has a much larger impact during the first years in the labor market than in later years. These findings are consistent with the interpretation that firms, in the absence of perfect information on workers' productivity, employ ethnic stereotypes and statistically discriminate among equally educated workers.

The next section provides a brief overview of ethnic diversity within Israeli Jewish society and some background on Ashkenazi and Sephardic surnames. In sections III and IV we describe the data sets we use and preview our rigorous analysis with a set of stylized facts about the Sephardic-Ashkenazi wage gaps over time and generations. The econometric framework for the empirical analysis is laid out in Section V. Section VI provides evidence on family background, cognitive achievements and educational attainments by parents. In section VII we report the estimated impact of Sephardic affiliation on wages and provide an explanation for the underlying mechanism. Section VIII takes a glance at alternative explanations. Section IX provides a placebo test using women's wages. The final section concludes.

2 A Brief Background of the Ethnic Diversity within Israeli Jewish society

Ethnicity is a central dimension of Israel's society. Israel is a multi-ethnic society with three levels: (i) Jews and non-Jews (mostly Arabs); (ii) Jews of European or American origin (Ashkenazim), and Jews of Asian or African descent (Sephardim) and (iii) secular and Orthodox Jews. In this paper we focus on the segmentation within Israeli secular society between Jews of Asian or African origin and Jews of European or American descent.

Ethnicity and migration to Israel

Ashkenazi Jews were the first Jewish settlers of Israel and came mainly from Eastern European countries. Most Sephardic Jews arrived after Israel achieved statehood and came mainly from Muslim countries of the Middle East and North Africa. In May 1948, the newly established state of Israel had about 600,000 Jews, primarily foreign

born and of Ashkenazic origin. In the following 3 years the Israeli Jewish population more than doubled itself, as survivors of the Jewish Holocaust in Europe and Jewish residents of Arab countries in Asia and North Africa immigrated to the state of Israel (Table A1). Since the late 1950s the two Jewish groups have been roughly equal in size. During the 1990s, following the collapse of the "Iron Curtain", Israel experienced mass migration from the former USSR. Since 1989, about one million Russian immigrants have arrived in Israel, increasing its population by more than 15 percent during the 1990s. By the mid 1990s, about half of Israeli Jews aged 22 to 65 were born in Israel (see web appendix Figure W1), the vast majority of whom were born to parents who immigrated to Israel (see web appendix Figure W2).

Economic and social ethnic gaps

The social, economic, and cultural assimilation of most Ashkenazi immigrants in Israeli society was quick and comprehensive. By contrast, Sephardic immigrants, who arrived during the mass migration, failed to close the socioeconomic gaps between them and the other groups. For instance, in the mid 1950s, less than a decade after the establishment of the state of Israel, the average male Jew born in Asia or Africa earned less than 60 percent of the average male Jew born in Europe or America (Hanoach, 1961; Ben-Porath, 1986). While by the late 1970s and early 1980s the educational achievements and earnings of Ashkenazi immigrants were no different from those of native-born Israelis or settlers from the pre-state period (Boyd, Featherman and Matras 1980), immigrants from Asia or Africa failed to achieve parity with their Ashkenazi counterparts. Unlike cases in other immigrant societies (Borjas 1990), the gaps have not narrowed over generations.

A large body of research documents persistent ethnic-related gaps among Israeli-born Jews on many indicators of social welfare, including educational achievements, (Lewin-Epstein and Semyonov, 1993; Cohen and Haberfeld, 1998) earnings (Haberfeld and Cohen, 2006), juvenile delinquency, and adult criminal involvement (Fishman et al. , 1984; Ajzenstadt, 2005). While the poor outcomes of first generation of "Sephardim" immigrants have often been attributed to low levels of economic development in source countries (Eisenstadt, 1954, 1967; Shuval 1963; Semyonov and Lerhental, 1991) or lack of personal ties with those who controlled resources (Semyonov and Tyree, 1981), the socioeconomic gaps among the second generation (Amir, 1987; Yitchaki 1987; Mark 1989; 1994; 1996) are challenging and intriguing.

Ethnic segregation within the Israeli Jewish population is also reflected outside of

labor markets. As in the United States, neighborhoods segregated by ethnic origin are not limited to immigrants or their children, and most marriages are within ethnic groups (Goldscheider, 2002). It is thus not surprising that "ethnicity", is one of the top 10 characteristics on the popular Jewish singles network JDate.com (Figure W4).

Surnames and ethnicity

Family names have great importance in Judaism, as they often indicate a person's genealogy or place of birth. Among Sephardic Jews, a surname may be derived from a person's home town, as Toledano (from Toledo), Alfasi (from Fez), Mizrahi (from the east), or Levanti (from the Levant). They may also be derived from the name of an important ancestor, or even refer to historical figures such as King David (Ibn Daoud is son of David). A common prefix is Ibn, which means "son" in Arabic; thus, Ibn Malka is "the son of Malka" (queen), and a person who carries the name Ibn Shaltiel is a descendent of Shaltiel.

Most Ashkenazi last names are derived from three sources. The first source is genealogy: Aharonson is the son of Aharon, Abramson is son of Abram, and so on. The second source is historical residence, such as Rotenberg (family from Rotenberg). The third source is personal characteristics, such as Gross (Large), Klein (small), Weiss (white). Personal characteristics also include professions historically common to the family, e.g., Schneider (tailor). Generally speaking, Sephardic and Ashkenazi Jews have different and distinct names. The only exceptions are probably Cohen and Levi, which are carried by persons of both groups. By the early 2000s, the vast majority of common Jewish family names in Israel were either Sephardic (e.g. Mizrahi, Peretz, Biton Dahan, Azulai, Gabai, Amar, Ochion, Chadad/Hadad, Ben-David, Adrei) or Ashkenazi (Friedman, Katz, Levin).¹⁰

3 The Data

The data that we use in the study are taken from the 20 percent public-use micro samples from the 1983 and 1995 Israeli censuses, the linked 1983-1995 sample and the Life History Study of Israeli Men (LHSIM). Our web appendix provides detailed information on these data sets.

¹⁰source: <http://www.britam.org/jerusalem/jerusalem271to300.html>

The Israeli Census Data

The census is the most comprehensive source of demographic and socioeconomic data on Israel's population.¹¹ The main sources of data used in this study are taken from the 20 percent public use micro-files from the 1995 and 1983 Israeli censuses. The long questionnaire is filled out by 20 percent of the population and consists of two parts: (i) the household segment, which includes details on dwelling, living conditions, appliances, family cars and household incomes; (ii) the personal questionnaire, which is completed by persons aged 15+ in those households and includes data on country of birth, educational attainments, marriages, fertility, labor force characteristics, and earnings.¹² Since army service is mandatory in Israel, our main samples include individuals aged 22 to 65 (retirement age in Israel during this period). We exclude observations with missing data on age, gender, country of birth and parents' country of birth (for Israeli born), educational attainment, place of residence and labor characteristics. We classify the population into eight education categories and 9 type of locality categories. Our wage sample excludes self-employed individuals or observations with imputed wages. We focus on full-time (more than 35 work hours per week), full-year (12 month) workers (hereafter FTFY) who worked the entire month for which salary is reported. We trim wage outliers when calculating mean wages by excluding the bottom/top 1%/99% of the salaried Jewish male FTFY workers wage distribution.¹³

With the 1983-1995 joint individual record, our sample matches observations from the 20 percent public-use micro samples taken from the 1983 and the 1995 Israeli censuses. As such, it covers approximately 4% of the Israeli population. This unique data set provides a base for longitudinal study and the opportunity to link young adults in 1995 to their parents in 1983 (and 1995).

Life History Study of Israeli Men

The Life History Study of Israeli Men is a systematic stratified national probability sample of Jewish Israeli men born in 1954 (Matras, Gila, and Bar Haim, 1984). The sample consists of 2,144 men who were randomly selected from the draft list of the army and lived in Israel in 1970. They were interviewed when they were approxi-

¹¹Includes residents of dwellings inside the State of Israel and Jewish settlements in the occupied territories.

¹²Documentation can be found at the Israel Social Sciences Data Center web site: http://isdc.huji.ac.il/mainpage_e.html

¹³Excluding recent (last 5 years) immigrants.

mately twenty-six years old. The interviews consisted of these extensive sections: (i) retrospective questions regarding participation in various life-course domains, (ii) current family characteristics and labor market outcomes; and (iii) family background, including parental country of birth and education level.

The interview data were merged with military, school and police records obtained from the respective government agencies. The eighth grade school records (the SEKER test scores) taken from Ministry of Education files were merged for 1,210 respondents. The data set contains, in addition to standard socioeconomic and demographic indicators, data on both father's and mother's country of birth.¹⁴ For all but 5 of the 1,210 respondents, military test scores were retrieved from the military files (Shavit, 1984; Featherman and Shavit, 1988). We use the revised version by Shavit (1994) that includes scores of tests taken by the respondents before joining the IDF. These include verbal and analytic test scores. Our main sample contains complete information on 1141 observations after excluding those who are foreign-born or have missing demographics.

Ethnicity and country of birth in the data

We define a person's ethnic origin by their country of birth or, for Israeli-born, by their parents' country of birth. Following previous studies, the foreign born are classified into two categories: (i) Asia-Africa (the "Sephardim") and (ii) Europe-America, which also includes individuals born in Australia, New Zealand or the former USSR (the "Ashkenazim"). Previous studies categorized Israelis born to "Sephardim" and "Ashkenazim" solely by their fathers' countries of birth (partly since other micro-data sets representing the Israeli population, including previous census data, did not contain information on mothers' countries of birth for Israeli-born). This paper is the first to use both father's and mother's country of birth using the 1995 census sample. Yet, since the 1983 census sample does not provide data on mother's country of birth and, for comparability with previous studies, we use two indicators for Israeli-born origin: first (i) the "inter-origin" classification, based on both father's and mother's country of birth and, as in previous studies, (ii) the "intra-origin" classification based only on father's country of birth.

When we use both parents' countries of birth we classify the Israeli-born population

¹⁴The file also contains data regarding history of schooling, the reasons for change in schools, and the men's achievements in different life stages. Data on informal activities, occupations, salaried work, and members of family and households are also included.

into two main sub-groups: (i) those whose parents were both born outside of Israel, and (ii) all others. Those born in Israel to parents who were both born outside of Israel are classified into four groups: (i) both father and mother born in Europe or America (hereafter AA) (ii) both parents born in Asia or Africa (hereafter SS), (iii) father born in Europe or America and mother born in Asia or Africa (hereafter AS), and (iv) father born in Asia or Africa and mother born in Europe or America (hereafter SA). Detailed description is found in Figure 2.

When we use only father's country of birth we classify Israeli-born Jews into three categories by father's origin: (i) father born in Asia or Africa (hereafter ISASAF), (ii) father born in Europe or America (hereafter ISERAM) and (iii) father born in Israel (hereafter ISIS). The 1983-1995 linked data provide the opportunity to disaggregate the Israeli-born Jewish population also by their paternal grandparents' origins. We further classify Israeli-born children in 1983 whose fathers were born in Israel (the ISIS) into three sub-groups by their grandfathers' origin: (i) grandfather born in Asia or Africa (hereafter ISISASAF), (ii) grandfather born in Europe or America (hereafter ISISERAM) and (iii) grandfather born in Israel (hereafter ISISIS).

4 A Glance at the Sephardic-Ashkenazi Social, Educational and Wage Gaps

We use the 20 percent public-use micro samples from the 1983, the 1995 Israeli censuses and the linked 1983-1995 sample to provide a brief overview of ethnic related disparities in social outcomes and economic success within Israeli Jewish society.

Three generations of Sephardic-Ashkenazi wage gaps

Figure 1 draws the "Sephardic-Ashkenazi" crude and residual wage gaps and the corresponding confidence intervals for three generations of Israeli Jews respectively. Each figure contains three entries. The first entry reports the wage gap between Israeli Jews born in Asia or Africa (ASAF) and their European-American counterparts (ERAM) as measured among salaried FTFY male workers in 1983. The second entry draws the Sephardic-Ashkenazi wage gaps among Israeli-born Jews as measured by the difference between the mean wages of ISASAF FTFY prime-aged salaried male workers and their ISERAM peers in 1995. In the third entry we take a first glance at ethnic-related wage gaps in the third generation. Using the 1983-1995 linked census sample, we estimate the Sephardic-Ashkenazi wage gaps among Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born

in Israel by their grandfather's country of origin. Employed with a sub-sample of males aged 26 to 32 in 1995, we proxy ethnic-related wage gaps by comparing the wages of those whose grandfathers were born in Asia or Africa (ISISASAF) with the wages of their European-American counterparts as measured in 1995.¹⁵ Crude wage gaps may vary by age. To compare ethnic gap in pays over these generations we calculate the Sephardic-Ashkenazi hourly wage gap among the first and second generations also for the sub-group of FTFY male workers aged 26 to 32.

Three main findings emerge: (i) we find large and persistent wage gaps between Sephardic and Ashkenazi male workers; (ii) we find no evidence for convergence in the wages of Sephardic Jews relative to their Ashkenazi counterparts in the first or the second generations of Israeli-born Jews, and (iii) the vast majority of the crude wage gaps reflect ethnic differences in educational attainment. Figures 2a and 2b point out the increasing role of "unobservables" (by the econometrician) in these ethnic-related wages gaps. ASAF workers earned less than 60 percent the wages of their ERAM counterparts if no controllers were included, and only 6 percent less once education, potential experience and region were controlled. The ethnic-related residual wage gaps between Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Israel yet whose grandfathers were born in Asia or Africa (ISISASAF) and their ISISERAM counterparts account for one half of the 40 percent gap in mean wages.

Three generations of Sephardic-Ashkenazi educational attainments gaps

In the early 1960s only one of five Jews born in Asia or Africa and two out of five Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa had completed more than 8 years of schooling, whereas the figures for their Ashkenazi counterparts were much higher (50 and 80 percent).¹⁶ By the mid 1980s, Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa completed 12 years of schooling (measured among 22-25 years of age), two years less than their European-American counterparts. A closer look at the data reveals that most of the progress was accomplished at the low end of the educational outcomes distribution. Using the census data we examine ethnic-related gaps in educational attainments, as measured among young adults just after the college age. We measure the Sephardic-Ashkenazi gaps among three generations. We use three outcomes: (i) years of schooling completed; (ii) matriculation eligibility (BAGRUT);

¹⁵There is no direct data on persons' grandfathers' country of birth. We are able to recover that for any individual observed in 1995 whose parents were observed in the 1983 sample.

¹⁶Source: Ben-Porath, (1986).

¹⁷ and (iii) academic degree rates among high school graduates with a BAGRUT title. Table 2 summarizes our main findings. Two main facts emerge. While the gap in completed years of schooling shrank, we find no evidence for similar trends in the share of high school graduates with a BAGRUT certificate and among BAGRUT certified those with academic degrees.

Interethnic unions

Sephardic-Ashkenazi segregation within the Israeli Jewish population is well-reflected outside of the labor markets. Despite religious similarities; integration through the educational system; military service and “collective consciousness” due to Israel’s security situation; and the genetic similarities between Ashkenazi and Non-Ashkenazi Jews that dilute ethnic barriers; after three generations, by the late 1990s, about three out of four unions among Jews in Israel were between members of the same ethnic category (Table 3a). The gaps in educational attainment and the persistent disparities in wages suggest that the tendency of Israeli-born Jews to marry within their ethnic groups might reflect sorting on skills rather than ethnic preferences.

We consider economic and social factors by comparing actual inter-marriage rates among recently married (last five years) Israeli-born Jews with the likelihood of obtaining an interethnic match in a "blind date". We do so by calculating the probability of a random man and a random woman to match outside their group. Using the 1995 census data we classify the recent married population of Israeli-born Jews by their fathers’ origins into three main groups: (i) those whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa (ISASAF), (ii) their European-American counterparts (ISERAM) and (iii) those whose fathers were born in Israel (ISIS). We calculate the actual and the "blind date rates" in the entire sub-population and by education levels. We report our findings in Table 3b. Three main findings emerge: (i) the rate of intra-ethnic marriage among Israeli-born Jews is 50 percent higher than the likelihood to randomly marry within your ethnic group; (ii) the extra within group marriage drops with education; yet (iii) we find that even among college graduates (at least BA degree) the within group marriage rates are about 20 percent higher than the likelihood to form an intra-ethnic

¹⁷Matriculation eligibility (BAGRUT) is a certification attained by passing a series of national exams in core and elective subjects beginning in tenth grade. Most students take the exam during the eleventh and the twelfth grades. A minimum of twenty credit units is required to qualify for a matriculation certificate. Students choose to be tested at various proficiency levels, with each test awarding 1–5 credit units per subject depending on difficulty.

union in a "blind date".¹⁸

Hence, the lack of interethnic marriage within Israeli Jewish society is mainly associated with measures of economic success rather than social preferences. The persistent gaps in educational attainments and the assortative mating on educational attainments by Israeli-born Jews indicate that children born to Ashkenazi unions have on average better-educated parents who earn substantially more than their Sephardic counterparts. Yet, our findings also suggest much smaller differences in the family backgrounds of Israeli-born Jews by fathers' origin in mixed unions.

In the next sections we take advantage of that to identify the reasons for the persistence of ethnic-related wage gaps in Israeli Jewish society.

5 The Empirical Approach

Recent attempts to evaluate the impact of labor market discrimination against minorities on wages (Neal and Johnson, 1996; Altonji and Pierret, 2001) aim at controlling for workers' market productivity by measures of cognitive achievements, which could be affected by market discrimination (Heckman, Stixrud and Urzua, 2006). Indeed, the wage gap between Israeli Jews born to Sephardic fathers and their counterparts born to Ashkenazi fathers might reflect factors other than discrimination based on family name. Following Becker (1973, 1974, 1981) - as well as the common knowledge outside of academic journals - we view sorting into interethnic marriages as neither exogenous to peoples' human capital nor to their labor market outcomes. The offspring of Ashkenazi couples might have more labor market skills than their counterparts. For this reason we focus on the sub-sample of Israeli Jews born to mixed couples. If Israeli Jews born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers—who are more likely to possess Sephardic names—have similar labor market skills, proxy by educational achievements, cognitive test scores and family background as their “Ashkenazi-Sephardi” counterparts, then it would be safe to conclude that the treatment-control contrast within Israeli Jews born to interethnic unions truly reflects a lower bound of the impact of ethnicity on wages. In the next sub-section we draw out a simple statistical model and our explicit identifying assumptions.

¹⁸Table W1 in the web appendix provides detailed information regarding the procedures we use to generate the random matching figures.

The statistical model

Let Y_i denote the log hourly wage of person i . For the sake of simplicity, let us assume that people carry either a Sephardic or an Ashkenazi surname. Let N_i be equal to 1 if person i posses a Sephardic surname and 0 otherwise. Outcomes are determined by whether person i possesses a "Sephardic" surname ($N_i = 1$). For simplicity of illustration let us assume that wages are given by a linear-in-the-parameters specification:

$$Y_i = \delta N_i + \beta X_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad (1)$$

where X is a vector of observed controls, β is the vector of returns associated with X and ε_i represents unobserved (by the econometrician) idiosyncratic person-specific influences on the outcome of interest. The parameter of interest δ measures the causal effect of a "Sephardic" surname on outcomes.

Family names have great importance in Judaism, as they often testify to a person's genealogy or place of birth. Jews from Asia or Africa are more likely to posses a Sephardic surname whereas Jews immigrating to Israel from Europe or America were more likely to posses an Ashkenazi name. People choose whether to carry their father's surname in order to maximize their expected utility. If labor markets use surnames as a signal, then it might be costly to have a Sephardic name. Yet it is not a "free lunch" to abandon it either. Social interactions in one's own ethnic community yield lower utility for those who do not carry their family name, as it might signal to their peers that they do not have an affinity to their community (see Fryer and Levitt, 2004). Let N^* denote the net latent benefit associated with having a Sephardic surname, assuming a linear-in-the-parameters specification:

$$N_i^* = \theta F_i + \nu_i, \quad (2)$$

where F_i is a binary variable that equals 1 if person i 's father was born in Asia or Africa and 0 otherwise. θ stands for the utility associated with having a Sephardic surname and the error term ν is such that $\nu \perp F$. Note that ε and ν might be correlated which would mean that persons' surnames are not randomly assigned *within* ethnic groups. People posses a Sephardic surname if and only if the benefits exceed the costs, which means:

$$N_i = 1 (N_i^* > 0), \quad (3)$$

where 1 is an indicator function, i.e. $1(A) = 1$ if A is true and $1(A) = 0$ otherwise. The reduced form relationship between person's name and father's country of birth is:

$$N_i = \gamma(\theta) F_i + \epsilon_i, \quad (4)$$

where $\gamma(\theta) = \Pr(N_i = 1 \mid \theta, F_i = 1) - \Pr(N_i = 1 \mid \theta, F_i = 0)$.

Assuming that F is not correlated with the person specific wage shocks in the outcome's of interest equation (1) the Wald estimator provides consistent estimates of the "Sephardic" family name effect on wages:

$$\delta = \frac{E(Y_i \mid F = 1) - E(Y_i \mid F = 0)}{E(N_i \mid F = 1) - E(N_i \mid F = 0)}. \quad (5)$$

We do not observe persons' names. Moreover, in reality, not all surnames can be classified as either "Sephardic" or "Ashkenazi". Yet, given the well-established association between surnames and ethnic origin it will be fair to *assume* that $0 < \gamma \leq 1$. Employed with these identifying assumptions, we obtain a lower bound for the causal impact of "Sephardic" family name on wages by estimating a reduced form statistical model. Substituting (4) into (1), the "reduced form" wage equation exhibits the following linear-in-the-parameters specification:

$$Y_i = \eta F_i + \beta X_i + \mu_i, \quad (6)$$

where $\mu_i = \delta \epsilon_i + \varepsilon_i$ and η stands for the reduced form impact of father's origin on wages. Assuming that parents' origin has no direct effect on observed characteristics then the OLS estimator in Equation (6) provides a lower bound for the (negative) causal impact of "Sephardic" surname on wages:

$$p \lim \eta^{OLS} = \gamma \delta \geq \delta, \quad (7)$$

assuming that Sephardic ethnic affiliation does not increase wages, that is $\delta \leq 0$.

6 Family Background, Cognitive Achievements and Educational Attainments by Parents' Origin

With our statistical model in mind we turn to the data. Using the 20 percent public-use micro-files from the 1995 Israeli census we compare the background and outcomes of Israeli Jews whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa and their mothers were born

in Europe of America (SA) with the outcomes of Jews born in Israel to fathers born either in Europe or America and their mother were born in Asia or Africa (AS). The difference between the mean wages of SA and the mean wages of AS provides a lower bound for the causal impact of a Sephardic surname iff SAs are as skilled as their AS counterparts. Therefore, we precede the wage gap estimation with a detailed look at the skill gap proxy by individuals' educational attainments, cognitive test scores and family backgrounds.

Educational Attainments

Figure 3 displays the educational achievements of Israeli Jews born in Israel whose parents were born outside of Israel by their parents' origin. We classify individuals into four sub-groups: (i) both father and mother born in Europe or in America (AA), (ii) both parents born in Asia or Africa (SS), (iii) father born in Europe or America and mother born in Asia or Africa (AS), (iv) father born in Asia or Africa and mother born in Europe or America (SA). We use three measures to proxy educational attainments: (i) matriculation (BAGRUT) eligibility; (ii) college and advanced degree; and (iii) number of school years completed. Figure 3 reports mean group outcomes relative to the average outcomes of the AS group for individuals aged 30 to 55 years (Figure W3 draws these outcomes for individuals aged 22 to 65). Two main findings emerge. Clearly, there are large and significant differences between the educational outcomes of Israeli Jews born to interethnic unions. AA Israeli-born Jews have higher levels of education than all other ethnic combinations, whereas SS Israeli-born Jews are lagging behind all others. For instance, prime age AA (30 to 55) complete about two more years of schooling than their SS counterparts and about one more year of schooling than their interethnic counterparts. These differences are also reflected in measures of education quality. Average matriculation-certificate eligibility of SS is about 25 percent lower than that of AA and 10 percent below that of interethnic unions. While we do find large disparities between AA, mixed union and SS groups' outcomes, we find almost no differences between offspring born to interethnic couples (defined by their father and mother origin). The educational attainments of SA Israeli-born Jews are statistically indistinguishable from the outcomes of their AS counterparts.

Family Background and Parents' Origin

Years of schooling completed is a partial and an indirect measure of human capital. While it is a proxy for time devoted to the accumulation of skills through formal

schooling, it might fail to account for children’s and young adults’ investment in human capital. Different schools differ in curricula, and even within schools some children receive better inputs than others. Informal schooling (e.g, parents’ inputs at early stages of development) varies greatly among children within and between ethnic groups. In the next subsections we take a glance at family background and test scores by parents’ origin.

The Census data does not provide data on parents’ income or education. To proxy family background we generate “synthetic parents” assuming that mothers were 20 to 35 years of age when they gave birth. For example, the “synthetic mother” of a person aged 35 in 1995 has the characteristics of the average married woman born between 1925 and 1940, by her continent of origin and her spouse’s continent of origin. The "synthetic fathers" have the characteristics of those actually married to the synthetic mothers. We use four measures to proxy parental background: (i) years of schooling completed, (ii) matriculation certificate, (iii) college education (or advanced degree) and (iv) log hourly wages. We measure these both for men (fathers) and women (mothers). We present our findings in Figures 4a and 4b. The benchmark group in all figures is men born in Europe or America and women born in Asia or Africa.

We find large disparities between the family backgrounds of Jews born in Israel by parents’ origin. Similar to individuals’ educational achievements, we find large differences between AA and SS men and women who married within their respective ethnic groups. European-American men married to European-American women have higher educational achievements and earn, on average, more than all other married men. We also find that men born in Asia or Africa who married within their ethnic group earn less and possess less schooling, on average, than all other married men. This also holds for women’s outcomes (see Figure 4b). Yet, while we find almost no differences between the education of AS and SA, we do find systematic differences between their “synthetic parents”. As Figure 4a and Figure 4b make clear, on average, ASAF males married to ERAM women achieve higher levels of education and earn more than ASAF men married to ASAF women. This also holds for their spouses. ERAM women married to ASAF men earn more and have higher levels of education than ASAF women married to ERAM men. Clearly the SA couples dominate their AS counterparts; they are better educated and earn more. In fact, by some measures the outcomes of SA couples are statistically indistinguishable from the outcomes of their AA counterparts.

Cognitive Test Scores by Parents' Origin

Schooling and other forms of investment in human capital, particularly in the early stages of children's development, affect performance on cognitive tests (Shavit and Featherman 1988). Early childhood environments are major predictors of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities (Carneiro and Heckman, 2003), whereas early investment in children yields the largest returns (Cunha et al 2007). There are many reasons why persons with the same educational attainments and family backgrounds may have significantly different skill sets. Neal (2007) finds substantial black-white gaps in cognitive test scores among children, teenagers and young adults, which remained constant or increased in absolute value since the late 1980s. Both cognitive and non-cognitive traits are important for skill formation and labor market outcomes (Heckman and Rubinstein, 2001). Neal and Johnson (1996) find that measures of cognitive achievements account for much of the black-white wage gap. The remarkable similarities between race gaps in academic achievements in the United States and Israel, as well as the role of cognitive skills in accounting for black-white wage gaps, suggest that differences in cognitive achievements between Sephardic and Ashkenazi-born Jews are a major source of "unexplained" ethnic wage gaps.

To address this question we take advantage of the Life History Study of Israeli Men data set, a stratified sample of Jewish Israeli men selected from the army draft list who were born in 1954 and lived in Israel in 1970. The data set contains, in addition to standard socioeconomic data and demographics, data on both father's and mother's country of birth. It also includes verbal and analytic test scores of respondents before they joined the IDF. We focus on the sample of Israeli-born Jews whose parents were born outside of Israel. We use two classifications of ethnic groups: (i) father's origin and (ii) father's and mother's origins. We report our findings in Tables 4a and 4b.

Table 4 shows the test-scores of Israeli-born Jews by father's and parents' origin. The table contains two panels reporting the standardized tests scores and four columns. The first two columns in the top panel report the average difference crude and residual analytical test scores between Israeli born Jews whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa and their Europe/America counterparts respectively. The next two columns report the ethnic gaps in verbal test scores. Clearly, Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Europe or America do better than their Asian-African counterparts. These results hold even when we account for years of schooling. Next, we take a closer look by father's and mother's origins. Results are found in bottom panel. The omitted group is Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Europe or America and their mothers in

Asia or Africa. The first entry reports the difference between the average analytical test scores of the AA group and the mean test score of their AS counterparts. We find that Israeli-born Jews whose parents were both born in Asia or Africa score significantly lower than all others, whereas their European-American counterparts achieve higher scores than others. We also find that the offspring of SA parents do slightly better than their AS counterparts. It is worth noting that, while AS achieve significantly lower test scores than their AA counterparts, we find SA Israeli-born Jews to be statistically indistinguishable from their AA counterparts.

Hence, individuals' observed educational attainment, measures of family background and common proxies for cognitive skills indicate that Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa and mothers were born in Europe or America are at least as skilled as their AS counterparts. Thus, it would be safe to conclude that the treatment-control contrast within Israeli Jews born to interethnic unions truly reflects a lower bound for the impact of ethnicity on wages.

7 The Impact of Sephardic Surname on Market Pay

Israeli Jews whose fathers were born in Europe or America have higher academic achievements than those whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa. This suggests that the lower earnings of Israeli-born Jews who carry a Sephardic surname reflect a skill gap rather than labor market discrimination against Sephardic-affiliated Israeli-born Jews. Yet, for the very same reason, Sephardic-Ashkenazi wage gaps between Israeli Jews born to mixed couples should not be attributable to a lack of skills. With this identification strategy in mind, we turn to the data.

Using data taken from the 20 percent public-use micro-files of the 1995 Israeli census, we estimate the mean wages of FTFY Israeli-born Jews whose parents were born outside Israel, by father's and mother's origin. We present our findings in Table 5. The table reports the coefficients on three dummy variables representing the AA, SA and the SS sub-groups. The benchmark group is Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Europe or America and whose mothers were born in Asia or Africa (AS). There are two panels. The first panel reports our findings for the FTFY men aged 22 to 65 and the second panel focuses on the group aged 30 to 55. The first entry in column (i), that is -0.099 , is the average crude wage gap in log hourly wages between SA FTFY workers and their AS counterparts. The first entry in the second column reports the log hourly wage gap controlling for education and potential experience. One major fact

emerges: SA workers earn about 8 percentage points less than their AS counterparts which is more than half the log hourly wage gap between AA and SS FTFY workers. As expected, SS FTFY workers earn less than all other ethnic groups. They earn about 13 percent less than their AA counterparts. This gap might reflect an unobserved (to the econometrician) skills gap between these groups. It is thus surprising to find that SA FTFY workers earn almost as little as their SS peers. This evidence is consistent with the view that, as of the mid 1990s, much of the Sephardic-Ashkenazi wage gap reflects discrimination against Israeli-born Jews with Sephardic affiliation, rather than disparities in human capital.

Literature in economics and sociology is replete with evidence pointing to the importance of friends and relatives – networks – as sources of employment information (Montgomery, 1991 provides a summary).¹⁹ This holds in developing countries where market imperfections tend to be more severe and pervasive as well as in modern economy in sectors in which markets function imperfectly (Munshi, 2003), having stronger impact in migrant communities (Borjas, 1992). The community network not only finds jobs for its members, it also channels them into higher paying occupations.

This might be very relevant for the Israeli case. The vast majority of the ASAF Jews that arrived after Israel achieved statehood (see Table A1) were characterized by a more traditional orientation, limited education, large families, and minimal economic resources. The ASAF immigrants were directed by government agencies to peripheral locations and development towns located far from the well-established urban centers (Semyonov and Tyree, 1981). Furthermore, they lacked personal connections to those in power (Lewin-Epstein and Semyonov, 1986) whereas ERAM Jews hold higher positions on all indicators of status and enjoy more favorable opportunities for achievement (Rosenstein, 1981).

The AS-SA residual wage gap might reflect the impact of origin related networks, reinforced by segregation into well-established and peripheral locations, rather than taste for ethnicity or statistical discrimination. The origin related segregation into occupations and locations of residency is well noted also among Israeli born Jews.

Table 6 describes occupational choices employment sectors and location patterns by parents' origin. The first panel reports occupational profiles, using 1-digit classification. Employment sectors and class of workers are found in the second panel. In the last two panels we utilize the Israeli CBS geographic version of the 20 percent census

¹⁹For instance Rees (1966) found that informal sources account for about half all hires in white-collar occupations and for most of all hires in blue-collar occupations.

micro samples and the CBS socioeconomic index to disaggregate locations into five socioeconomic status categories. These panels report locations patterns of synthetic parents and own locations of residence respectively.

Offspring to Ashkenazi parents (AA) are overrepresented in the highly pay occupations whereas SS workers dominate the low pay occupations. AA are more likely to be salaried workers and employed by government agencies whereas their SS counterparts sort into self-employment more than all other groups. Similarly AA parents' reside in better socioeconomic locations than all other groups whereas the parents of SS Israeli born Jews were concentrated in the less developed locations. Offspring to mixed unions have better family background, as measured by the socioeconomic quality of their parents' location, and work in higher paid occupations than their SS peers. Yet, while segregation into locations and occupations is positively correlated with wages among offspring of intra-ethnic unions this does not hold for their mixed-couples peers. We find that SA reside in better locations and work in slightly better paid occupations than their AS counterparts.

We next introduce locations and occupational choices to the wage regressions. Table 7 reports the coefficients on three dummy variables representing the AA, SA and the SS sub-groups. The benchmark group is the AS group. We report our findings for FTFY men aged 22 to 65 and aged 30 to 55. The first column in each panel reports the residual wage gap controlling for education and potential experience. In the next two columns we introduce sequentially locations of residency and occupational fixed effects. As expected locations and occupational choices account for a non negligible part of the unexplained wage gap between the AA and the SS workers. However it does not account for the residual wage gap between SA and AS workers. In fact we find the residual wage gap between AS and SA to be larger when we account for occupational choices.

Ethnic discrimination might reflect a "taste for discrimination" or ethnic stereotypes. Statistical discrimination is difficult to identify, and past empirical studies have been inconclusive. Altonji and Pierret (2001) argue that the coefficients on easily observed variables (by the employers) should decrease over individuals' working cycles as firms discover worker productivity. Equipped with this insight, we use variation in wages over the life cycle to shed light on underlying sources of discrimination. It is worth noting that wages vary over the life cycle due to reasons other than market learning. On-the-job training (Mincer, 1974; Heckman Lochner and Todd, 2004; Rubinstein and Weiss, 2007) is a prime example. Stereotyping, which reduces the returns to in-

vestment in human capital (Coate and Loury, 1993), may cause minorities to invest less in on-the-job training.

With this caveat in mind, we again turn to the data. We reevaluate the reduced-form impact on FTFY workers aged 30 to 42 and on those aged 43 to 55. We report our findings in Table 8. Two main facts emerge. We find that the wage differential between AS and SA workers reflects the causal impact of fathers' origin only during individuals' first years working FTFY in the labor market. During these years, SA FTFY workers earn about seven percentage points less than their AS counterparts. We find no differences in wages between these groups later in their working lives. Results indicate that the decline in the SA-AS wage gap reflects the growing gap between AA and AS workers, rather than better outcomes of the SA group relative to their AA counterparts.

The wage gap might also reflect systematic differences in sorting into industries across groups ethnic groups. While we find that the AA are more likely to working in the government sector, less likely to be self-employed and more likely to be salaried workers than their SS counterparts, we find no such differences between the offspring born to mixed unions (see Table 6).

8 Alternative Explanations

The pay gap might reflect factors other than discrimination. Although all available measures indicate that Israeli-born Jews whose fathers were born in Asia or Africa and whose mothers were born in Europe or America (SA) perform better on cognitive achievements tests than their AS counterparts, this finding might not hold for non-cognitive traits. For instance, Heckman and Rubinstein (2001) show that while adults with GEDs perform better on cognitive achievements tests than other high school dropouts and as well as ordinary high school graduates, they possess lower levels of non-cognitive skills, which affects their earnings. Recently Fryer et al. (2008) found that mixed race adolescents are outliers compared to both blacks and whites when it comes to engaging in risky and anti-social adolescent behavior.

It is well-documented that Israeli Jewish society is segregated by ethnic origin. Moreover, it is common knowledge outside academic journals that Israeli Jews of European or American origin are (on average) more likely to practice a secular western lifestyle than Israeli Jews of Asian or African origin. Sephardic and Ashkenazi Jews who came to Israel from Asia-Africa or from Europe-America, respectively, may possess

different norms and beliefs - that is, different cultures. Recently, Fernández and Fogil (2006) and Fernández (2007) showed that a woman's heritage, proxied by her parents' country of origin, has non-negligible impact on fertility and labor supply among second-generation American women. Children of parents born in Asia or Africa might have been exposed to different norms and beliefs than their European-American counterparts. Ethnic wage gaps might reflect cultural differences that affect skill accumulation, rather than ethnic-based discrimination. Our setting partially accounts for that by focusing on offspring to inter-ethnic unions. Yet, although one might expect cultural differences among offspring to inter-ethnic unions to be smaller than those among offspring to intra-ethnic couples, the experience of growing up in an AS family might be different than that of being raised by Sephardic father and an Ashkenazi mother (SA). The wage gap might reflect the impact of "neighborhoods" or culture on the formation of market skills rather the causal effect of discrimination on wages. In the next sub-sections we consider these issues.

Religious Practice by Parents' Country of Origin

The LHIM data provide some insight into measures of religiosity. Interviewees were asked whether their fathers used to keep "kosher" or wore a "kippah".²⁰ Employed with this information, we take a systematic glance at the data. Table 9a and Table 9b report fathers' and own religious practice by continent of origin respectively. The first entry in Table 9a reports the crude difference in the fraction of fathers keeping "kosher" between Israeli fathers born in Asia or Africa and their European-American counterparts as reported by their offspring. The second entry reports the crude difference in the fraction of fathers who wore a kippah. Clearly Israeli fathers born in Asia or Africa are more likely to keep traditional religious practice than their European-American counterparts. The bottom panel in Table 9a takes a closer look at the same outcome, this time disaggregating the population by fathers' and mothers' origin. We find differences in religious practice among those married outside of their ethnic groups to be much smaller than the gaps between men in intra-ethnic unions. In fact SAs are slightly less orthodox than their AS peers. As one might expect, on a host of religious practices, offspring to SA parents are less likely to observe traditional practice than their SS and their AS counterparts. Hence, while these crude measures indicate cultural differences between Ashkenazi and Sephardic Jews born to intra-ethnic unions,

²⁰"Kippah" is a thin, slightly rounded skullcap traditionally worn by observant Jewish men, also known as "yarmulke")

we find no difference between the mixed groups.

Fertility

Traditions and customs passed down from generation to generation might impact labor market outcomes. Following the pioneering work by Becker and Lewis (1973) the number of children and parental investment per child are perceived as household choice variables reflecting preferences and economic forces. Becker's and Lewis's (1973) quantity-quality trade-off is a channel via which cultural differences among ethnic groups may cause and reinforce disparities in cognitive abilities and non-cognitive traits.²¹ Thus we take a glance at the fertility rates by parents' continent of origin. We utilize the "synthetic parents" sample, taken from the 1983 census data, to estimate "synthetic mothers" fertility rates by "synthetic mother" and "synthetic father" continent of origin. This population sample includes all married women, born outside of Israel between 1905 and 1945, married to Israeli Jews who were born outside of Israel as well. Fertility rates and the frequency of inter-ethnic marriage might have varied systematically over time. To account for that we estimate fertility rates also for the sub-sample of women aged 38 to 45 years in 1983. Fertility is measured by the number of own children. The results are found in Table 10. The table contains two panels. The first panel reports the estimated average number of children for the population sample whereas the second panel provides estimates for the sub-sample of women 38 to 45 years of age. The benchmark group in all specifications includes women born in Asia or Africa married to Israeli Jews that were born in Europe or America. The first and second columns in each panel report crude and cohort of birth adjusted fertility gaps respectively. The first entry reports the gap between the average number of children born to an Ashkenazi women married to a Sephardic man and the average number of children in the benchmark group. Women born in Asia or Africa married to men from the same origin have the highest fertility rates (approximately 5 children) whereas women born in Europe or America whose partners were born in Europe or America have the lowest number of children (slightly less than 2.5 children). This also holds after controlling for cohort of birth effects. While we observe large disparities between intra-ethnic unions we find no differences between interethnic couples. The average number of children of an Ashkenazi woman married to a Sephardic man is almost identical and statistically indistinguishable from the average number of children

²¹Recently Fernández and Fogil (2006) show that women's heritage, proxied by her parents' country of origin, has a non-negligible impact on fertility.

born to their mixed couple peers. This also holds also when we account for cohort of birth effects and when we restrict the sample to married women 38 to 45 years of age. Hence, we find no differences between AS and SA family background as measured by number of siblings.

9 The Impact of Ethnic Origin on Women’s Pay: A Placebo Test

Sephardic and Ashkenazi Jews have different and distinct surnames passed from father to son. If female offspring born to mixed couples have the same likelihood of marrying men coming from their fathers’ or their mothers’ ethnic groups, markets should be unable to distinguish between AS and SA women based on their surnames. If the wage gap between SA and AS men reflects the causal impact of discrimination based on ethnic affiliation signaled by family name, we should find no gaps between SA and AS females. With this idea in mind we turn back to the 1995 census data.

We first calculate the fraction of women married to men from the other ethnic group by their fathers’ and both parents’ continent of origin. We report our findings in Table 11 for women aged 30 to 50.²² The table contains two panels and two columns. The first panel reports the results by fathers’ continent of origin. The second panel provides the rate of interethnic unions by parents’ continent of origin. The first column reports the fraction of women currently married by ethnicity (relative to the benchmark group). The second column presents the fraction of women married outside their fathers’ ethnic groups. We find that approximately 80 percent of these women were married during the survey (while less than 5 percent report being never married). Thus, those born to ASAF fathers are substantially less likely to form an interethnic union (see top panel). Yet, as the second panel clearly shows this does not hold for women born to mixed unions. For instance, 47 percent of the married AS women and 43 percent of the SA married women report that their father-in-laws were born in Asia or Africa or in Europe or America respectively.

Next we turn to the wage data. Using the statistical models employed for FTFY working men we estimate mean wages by fathers’ and mothers’ origin for FTFY working

²²Retirement age in Israel vary by gender. It was 65 for men and 60 for women in 1995. This is reflected in female labor supply at their late 50s. Labor force participation and FTFY employment are much lower for women aged 51 to 55 than compare with women aged 30 to 50 (approximately 10%). Marriage outside own ethnic group is less common among older cohorts of birth. For these reasons we focus on the age group of 30 to 50. Results are robust to inclusion of the 51 to 55 years of age group.

women. The results are found in Table 12. The top panel reports the ethnic gap in log hourly wages by fathers' origin for women aged 30 to 50. The first column reports the crude gaps, the second column provides the residual wage gaps accounting for education and potential experience and the third column controls for region of residence and occupational fixed effects. We find substantial crude and residual wage gaps when the population sample of FTFY working women is classified to ethnic groups by fathers' continent of origin (top panel). These gaps are similar in magnitude to those measured for working men. Nevertheless, we find almost no difference between the mean wages of AS and SA FTFY working women (bottom panel). These results hold when we control for education attainments, potential experience, area of residence and occupational choices. These findings are consistent with the interpretation that the measured gap in men's wages between SA and AS reflects discrimination based on ethnic affiliation signaled by persons' family name.

10 Conclusions

The growing mobility of individuals across borders has been transforming homogenous populations into multi-ethnic economies. Hence economists should strive to better understand the causes and consequences of cultural barriers. The Israeli Jewish society provides an excellent quasi-experimental setting for studying the impact of *ethnic* and *cultural-based* prejudice on labor market outcomes and feedback effects.

The Israeli Jewish society is characterized by an ethnic cleavage on the basis of two groups: those of European or American descent, the "Ashkenazim," and those of Asian or African descent, the "Sephardim". A large body of research documents vast and persistent disparities between ethnic groups among Israeli-born Jews on many indicators of social welfare and economic success, including educational achievements. By the late 1990s, the wage gap between Israeli-born Sephardic Jews and Israeli-born Ashkenazi Jews had become as large as the black-white wage gap in the United States. Much of the wage gap reflects persistent differences in academic achievements; yet, as in the United States, the source of differences in educational achievements, wage rates and earnings has not been fully determined.

In this respect, Israel provides an illuminating setting for studying the role of stereotypes and prejudice in labor markets. In this study we take advantage of (i) ethnic gaps in measures of human capital and educational achievements; (ii) origin-related genealogy of persons' family names; and (iii) interethnic unions - unique attributes of

the Israeli Jewish society - to evaluate the impact of prejudice and ethnic stereotypes on the labor market outcomes of equally productive workers.

Family names have great importance in Judaism, as they often testify to a person's genealogy or place of birth. Today, most Jewish family names in Israel are Sephardic or Ashkenazi. Using this common knowledge, we focused on two sub-groups: (i) Israeli Jews born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers, who are more likely to carry a Sephardic surname and, therefore, be treated in labor markets as Sephardic; and (ii) Israeli Jews born to Ashkenazi fathers and Sephardic mothers who carry an Ashkenazi family name and are more likely to be perceived as Ashkenazi by labor markets. We estimate the reduced-form impact of Sephardic affiliation on pay by comparing the log hourly wages of Israeli Jews born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers with the outcomes of Israeli Jews born to Ashkenazi fathers and Sephardic mothers.

By the mid 1990s Israeli-born Sephardic workers earned about 12 percent less than their Ashkenazi counterparts. We utilize the Israeli Census of 1995, the first to contain both fathers' and mothers' country of birth (for those born in Israel), to assess the causal impact of ethnic affiliation on pay. Comparing the log hourly wages of Israeli-born SA with the outcomes of their AS counterparts, we find that FTFY Israeli male workers born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers earn about 8 percent less than those born to Ashkenazi fathers and Sephardic mothers, which is approximately one half of the wage gap between intra-ethnic Israeli-born Jews.

SA have better educational achievements, perform better on cognitive achievements tests than their AS peers, have higher levels of parental education, and earnings than their mixed-couple counterparts. Thus they are expected to earn more. Nevertheless they are being paid less. This contrast, summarized in Figure 5a and Figure 5b, suggests that our estimates provide lower bounds for the impact of ethnic discrimination on wages.

The pay gap might reflect other factors affecting non-cognitive traits besides discrimination. Although our setting partially accounts for that by focusing on offspring to inter-ethnic unions, the experience of growing up by Ashkenazi father and Sephardic mother might be different than that of being raised by Sephardic father and an Ashkenazi mother (SA).

If SA relative wages reflect discrimination based on ethnic affiliation signaled by family name, we expect to find smaller gaps between SA and AS women as they marry outside of their fathers' ethnic group. Using the 1995 census data we find that Israeli Jewish women born to Sephardic fathers and Ashkenazi mothers (SA) have almost the

same likelihood to carry a Sephardic surname as their AS counterparts, as both groups marry Sephardic and Ashkenazi men roughly in equal proportions. Consistent with our interpretation of the results for men, we find no difference between the hourly wages of AS and SA FTFY working women.

Finally, we consider the underlying discrimination mechanism. Ethnic discrimination might reflect both the outcome of a "taste for discrimination" or the result of ethnic stereotypes. Do Israeli employers statistically discriminate among young workers on the basis of easily observable characteristics such as ethnic affiliation? If so, do they treat them more equally as they learn about their productivity? Statistical discrimination is difficult to identify, perhaps since wages vary over the life cycle due to reasons other than market learning. Stereotypes, which reduce the returns to investment in human capital (Coate and Loury, 1993), may cause minorities to invest less on the job. We reevaluate the reduced-form impact on wages of prime aged FTFY workers over early and later stages of FTFY careers. Our findings are consistent with the interpretation that firms, in the absence of perfect information on workers' productivity, employ ethnic stereotypes and statistically discriminate among equally productive workers. Moreover, we find that the drop in the impact of Sephardic affiliation is due to a decline in the wages of AS workers, rather than an increase in the wages of SA workers; perhaps the drop occurs too late for SA workers. These findings point toward feedback effects of discrimination on workers' investment, as well as to the importance of future work on the dynamic consequences of statistical discrimination.

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Table 1
The Gap in Log Hourly Wages Among Israeli-Born Jews By Father's Origin
Israeli 1995 Census Micro Files

Variables	Age			
	22-65		30-55	
	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
Born in Israel, father born in Asia or Africa	-0.462 (0.007)	-0.106 (0.007)	-0.426 (0.008)	-0.122 (0.008)
Born in Israel, father born in Israel	-0.231 (0.010)	-0.015 (0.009)	-0.139 (0.012)	-0.019 (0.011)
Controlling for Education, Experience and Location	No	Yes	No	Yes
R-squared	0.119	0.399	0.114	0.329
Observations	32913	32913	23505	23505

Notes: The benchmark group is individuals born in Israel whose father was born in Europe or America. The table reports the coefficient on a dummy variable representing individuals who were born in Israel to a father born either in Asia/Africa or in Israel relative their counterparts whose father was born in Europe or America. The first column in each age group reports crude wage gaps. The second column in each age group reports wage gaps conditional on potential experience, highest diploma received and area of residence. Potential experience was calculated as age-school years completed-6 and we control for a quartic in experience. Highest diploma received is represented by 8 dummy variables. We control for a full set of regional dummies. () Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

Table 2
Educational Attainments by Origin and Generation in Israel among Jewish Males Aged 30 to 55
Israeli Censuses of 1983, 1995 and the linked 1983-1995 Micro Files

Generation in Israel									
Ethnic Group	1st (ASAF/ERAM)			2nd (ISASAF/ISERAM)			3rd (ISISASAF/ISISERAM)		
	School Years	BAGRUT Rate	Academic Degree	School Years	BAGRUT Rate	Academic Degree	School Years	BAGRUT Rate	Academic Degree
	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)	(vii)	(viii)	(ix)
"Sephardic"	-3.3 (0.0)	-0.3 (0.0)	-0.2 (0.0)	-2.4 (0.0)	-0.3 (0.0)	-0.2 (0.0)	-2.3 (0.4)	-0.4 (0.1)	-0.3 (0.1)
"Ashkenazi" (Level)	13.7 (0.1)	0.5 (0.0)	0.5 (0.0)	14.0 (0.2)	0.6 (0.0)	0.6 (0.0)	14.0 (0.5)	0.7 (0.1)	0.5 (0.2)

Notes: The table reports years of schooling completed, matriculation rates ("BAGRUT") and the fraction with college education (or advanced degrees) by origin. For those born outside of Israel (1st generation) origin is determined by own continent of birth, namely Asia-Africa (ASAF) and Europe-America (ERAM). For those born in Israel whose father was born outside Israel, origin is determined by father's continent of birth. Finally, for those born in Israel to a father who was born in Israel, origin is determined by father's father (paternal grandfather) continent of birth.
 () Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

Table 3a
Inter and Intra Ethnic Unions, by Decade of Marriage[^]
Israeli 1983 and 1995 Census Micro Files

Decade of Marriage	<u>Origin of Husband and Wife</u>				<u>Fractions of Inter and Intra-Ethnic Unions</u>		Fraction of All Marriages in Decade For Which Origin of Husband and Wife can be Identified
	Hus -A Wf -A	Hus -A Wf -S	Hus -S Wf -A	Hus -S Wf -S	Within Origin	Between Origins	
	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)	(vii)
1970's	0.37	0.10	0.08	0.44	0.81	0.19	0.90
1980's	0.36	0.10	0.09	0.45	0.81	0.19	0.83
1990's	0.31	0.12	0.13	0.45	0.76	0.24	0.71

Notes: The table reports the fractions of marriages within/between groups of origin by decade of marriage. The figures in the table are the fraction of couples who married in each decade and were still married at the time of the respective census. We used the 1995 census to compute the fraction of marriages in the 1980s and the 1990s. We used the 1983 census to compute the fraction of marriages in the 1970s. The table focuses on couples whose exact origin is identified. If, for example, the husband's father was born in Israel we are not able to know if the husband origin is from Asia/Africa or Europe/ America. Therefore, in column (vii) we present the fractions of marriages for which we identified the origin for both husband and wife out of all lasting marriages in that decade.

[^] Ethnicity (A - Ashkenazi and S - Sephardic) is determined by continent of birth, for those born outside of Israel and by father continent of birth for Israeli-born.

Table 3b
Assortative Mating by Ethnicity
The Fraction of Intra Group Unions Among Couples Married between 1990 and 1995; Actual vs. Randomly Matched Couples
Israel 1995 Census Micro Files

	All		At least BAGRUT		At least BA	
	Marriage within "Ashkenazi" /"Sephardic"^(i)	All^^ Marriages(ii)	Marriage within "Ashkenazi" /"Sephardic"^(iii)	All^^ Marriages(iv)	Marriage within "Ashkenazi" /"Sephardic"^(v)	All^^ Marriages(vi)
Actual Marriages	70.5	52.1	63.8	45.3	63.4	42.1
Random Assignment^^^	53.9	37.1	50.0	33.5	53.8	35.0

Notes: The tables reports the fraction of actual marriages inside one's origin group. It compares actual vs. randomly matched couples in the population. The sample includes individuals who are: age 25-30, currently married, married for the first time for less than 5 years and are in Israel more than 5 years.

^ Ashkenazi and Sephardic are those born in ERAM (ASAF) or those born in Israel to fathers born in ERAM (ASAF)

^^ Include also observations born in Israel to an Israeli-born father, therefore they can not be identified as either Ashkenazi or Sephardic

^^^Table W1 in the web appendix provides detailed information regarding the procedures we use to generate the random matching figures.

Table 4
Origin Related Gaps in Analytic and Verbal Standardized Test Scores
IDF Administered Test Scores, Life History Study of Israeli Men

		Analytic Scores		Verbal Scores	
		(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
<i>By Father's Origin</i>					
Father born in Asia or Africa		-0.56 (0.06)	-0.25 (0.05)	-0.70 (0.06)	-0.36 (0.05)
Controlling for Education		No	Yes	No	Yes
R-squared		0.08	0.34	0.12	0.40
Observations		1141	1141	1141	1141
<i>By Parents' Origin</i>					
Father - Asia/Africa	SA	0.53 (0.30)	0.45 (0.25)	0.35 (0.29)	0.25 (0.24)
Mother - Europe/America					
Father - Europe/America	AA	0.47 (0.19)	0.22 (0.16)	0.56 (0.19)	0.28 (0.15)
Mother - Europe/America					
Father - Asia/Africa	SS	-0.14 (0.19)	-0.05 (0.16)	-0.19 (0.18)	-0.11 (0.15)
Mother - Asia/Africa					
Controlling for Education		No	Yes	No	Yes
R-squared		0.09	0.34	0.13	0.40
Observations		1141	1141	1141	1141

Notes: The benchmark group at the top panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America. The benchmark group at the bottom panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America and to a mother who was born in Asia or Africa. Every Israeli man takes a test prior to his mandatory service in the Israeli Defense Forces (IDF). This test is comprised of three sections: (i) Analytic (ii) Verbal and (iii) Non cognitive. The table reports the scores of the first two tests for a sample of Israeli born men for whom both father and mother's country of birth is known. In this sample the range of the analytic score is between 5-33 and the range of the verbal score is between 0-21. We control for education with a set of dummies for 0-4, 5-8, 9-11, 12, Matriculation, 13+ years of schooling. There are two dummies indicating skipping/repeating a class
 () Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

Table 5
The Gap in Log of Hourly Wages Among Israeli Born FTFY Male Workers by Parents' Origin
Israel 1995 Census Micro Files

Variables		Age			
		22-65		30-55	
		(i)	(ii)	(vi)	(v)
Father - Asia/Africa	SA	-0.099	-0.067	-0.070	-0.078
Mother - Europe/America		(0.033)	(0.027)	(0.042)	(0.035)
Father - Europe/America	AA	0.354	0.055	0.272	0.065
Mother - Europe/America		(0.021)	(0.018)	(0.025)	(0.022)
Father - Asia/Africa	SS	-0.151	-0.062	-0.186	-0.067
Mother - Asia/Africa		(0.020)	(0.017)	(0.024)	(0.022)
Controlling for Education, and Experience		No	Yes	No	Yes
R-squared		0.157	0.402	0.141	0.337
Observations		25170	25170	18659	18659

Notes: The comparison group is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe/America and to a mother who was born in Asia/Africa. Sample includes full-time full-year (FTFY) salaried male workers in 1995. The first column in each age group reports crude wage gaps. The second column in each age group reports wage gaps conditional on potential experience and highest diploma received. Potential experience was calculated as age-school years completed-6 and we control for a quartic in potential experience. Highest diploma received is represented by 8 dummy variables. We control for a full set of dummy variables for each area of residence in the year of the census.

() Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

Table 6
Occupation, Sector, Class of Worker and Location of Residence by Parents' Origin
Israeli Born Jews, Males, Age 30-55
Israeli 1995 Census Micro Files

		Origin by Both Parents' Continent of Birth			
		AA	AS	SA	SS
Occupation, Sector and Class of Worker					
<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Hourly wage for an</i>				
<i>1-Digit Classification</i>	<i>AA worker^</i>				
MANAGERS	\$20	0.20	0.11	0.15	0.07
ACADEMIC PROFESSIONALS	\$18	0.22	0.12	0.11	0.05
ASSOCIATE PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS	\$14	0.12	0.11	0.12	0.08
CLERICAL WORKERS	\$13	0.13	0.15	0.12	0.13
AGENTS, SALES AND SERVICE WORKERS	\$11	0.09	0.14	0.13	0.12
INDUSTRY, CONSTRUCTION AND OTHER SKILLED WORKERS	\$10	0.17	0.28	0.29	0.43
SKILLED AGRICULTURAL WORKERS	\$10	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
UNSKILLED WORKERS	\$8	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.11
<i>Sector</i>					
Government Sector		0.26	0.21	0.22	0.21
<i>Class of Worker</i>					
Salaried Workers		0.78	0.76	0.76	0.77
Self Employed		0.20	0.21	0.23	0.22
Kibbutz members, Cooperative workers and unpaid family members		0.02	0.03	0.01	0.01
Location of Residence (by quintiles of Socio-Economic Index)					
<i>Individual's Location of Residence in 1995^</i>					
5th Quintile (Highest Index Level))		0.27	0.18	0.17	0.14
4th Quintile		0.23	0.26	0.25	0.18
3rd Quintile		0.25	0.22	0.22	0.17
2nd Quintile		0.13	0.17	0.17	0.20
1st Quintile		0.11	0.16	0.18	0.30
<i>Location of Residence of "Synthetic Parents" in 1983^^^</i>					
5th Quintile (Highest Index Level))		0.24	0.20	0.21	0.11
4th Quintile		0.11	0.11	0.10	0.08
3rd Quintile		0.29	0.32	0.35	0.23
2nd Quintile		0.19	0.17	0.18	0.22
1st Quintile		0.17	0.20	0.16	0.35

Notes for Occupations panel: All individuals are salaried workers. The Central Bureau of Statistics classifies under the unified definition of "Industry, Construction and Other skilled workers" groups 6-8 in the 1-digit occupations classification. We present these three groups under the unified definition. The gaps between the fraction of SA

individuals relative to AS individuals in each of the 6-8 1-digit classification groups (within the "Industry, Construction and Other skilled workers" group are 0.013, -0.009, 0.006 for groups 6,7 and 8 respectively. All are insignificant.

^ For each occupation we calculated the average hourly wage of an AA worker. Hourly wage is presented in current US Dollars (\$) and was converted from New Israeli Shekels (NIS) by a rate of 3.04, the average exchange rate in September 1995 (Source: Bank of Israel)

Notes for sector and class of worker panel: We defined working in the government sector individuals working in: Production and distribution of electricity, Collection, purification and distribution of water, Air transport, Banking and other financial institutions, Public administration of the state, Administration of the local authorities, The National Insurance, Education, Health services Sewage and refuse disposal and sanitation services, Community centers, Religious services, Extra-territorial organizations and bodies Port services Airport services, National telecommunication services, Commercial banks Controls are a full set of dummies for age and highest diploma received.

Notes for own location of residence panel: The Socio-Economic Index was constructed by The Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics and is based on measures of income per capita, unemployment rates, fraction of students with matriculation eligibility fraction of BA students, transportation, demography and other measures for each locality. The index has a mean value of -.0003191 with standard deviation of 1.13.

Notes for location of residence of synthetic parents panel: The benchmark group at the top panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America. The benchmark group at the bottom panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America and to a mother who was born in Asia or Africa. The dependent variables are three measures of socio-economic status of localities in Israel. The Socio-Economic Index was constructed by The Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics and is based on measures of income per capita, unemployment rates, fraction of students with matriculation eligibility fraction of BA students, transportation, demography and other measures for each locality. The index has a mean value of -.04 with standard deviation of 0.95. The "Monthly Income" index was also constructed by the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics and measures the
^^ These data were taken from the geographic census file. In this file age of individuals were grouped. We are looking at individuals aged 30-54.

^^^ To proxy family background we generate "synthetic parents" assuming mothers were 20 to 35 when they gave birth. A "synthetic mother" of a person aged 35 in 1995 has the characteristics of the average married woman born in 1925-4 by her continent of origin and her spouse's origin.

The "synthetic fathers" have the characteristics of those actually married to the "synthetic" mothers.

Table 7
The Gap in Log of Hourly Wages Among Israeli Born FTFY Male Workers by Parents' Origin
Israel 1995 Census Micro Files

Variables		Age					
		22-65			30-55		
		(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)
Father - Asia/Africa	SA	-0.067	-0.066	-0.090	-0.078	-0.079	-0.113
Mother - Europe/America		(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.025)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.033)
Father - Europe/America	AA	0.055	0.055	0.026	0.065	0.064	0.030
Mother - Europe/America		(0.018)	(0.018)	(0.016)	(0.022)	(0.022)	(0.020)
Father - Asia/Africa	SS	-0.062	-0.061	-0.049	-0.067	-0.067	-0.059
Mother - Asia/Africa		(0.017)	(0.017)	(0.015)	(0.022)	(0.022)	(0.019)
<i>Controlling for</i>							
Education and Experience		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Location		No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Occupation		No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
R-squared		0.402	0.402	0.491	0.337	0.337	0.447
Observations		25170	25170	25170	18659	18659	18659

Notes: The comparison group is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe/America and to a mother who was born in Asia/Africa. Sample includes full-time full-year (FTFY) salaried male workers in 1995. The first column in each age group reports wage gaps conditional on potential experience and highest diploma received. In the second column we added a full set of dummies for location of residence in 1995. The third column in each age group controls for the same set of controls as the second column and adds a full set of dummy variables for each occupation classified by three digits. We added a set of dummy variables for each occupation classified by one digit to control for cases where 3-digit classification is not available. We also added a dummy variable indicating missing occupation. Potential experience was calculated as age-school years completed-6 and we control for a quartic in potential experience. Highest diploma received is represented by 8 dummy variables. We control for a full set of dummy variables for each area of residence in the year of the census.

() Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

Table 8
The Gap in Log of Hourly Wages Among Israeli Born Male FTFY Workers,
by Age Groups and Parents' Origin
Israel 1995 Census Micro Files

		Aged 30 to 55					
Variables		All		30 to 42		43 to 55	
		(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)
Father born in ASAF	SA	-0.070	-0.079	-0.137	-0.102	-0.008	0.010
Mother born in ERAM		(0.042)	(0.035)	(0.046)	(0.040)	(0.089)	(0.078)
Father born in ERAM	AA	0.272	0.064	0.185	0.044	0.251	0.133
Mother born in ERAM		(0.025)	(0.022)	(0.027)	(0.024)	(0.063)	(0.060)
Father born in ASAF	SS	-0.186	-0.067	-0.185	-0.078	-0.196	-0.002
Mother born in ASAF		(0.024)	(0.022)	(0.026)	(0.023)	(0.064)	(0.061)
Controls		No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
R-squared		0.141	0.337	0.095	0.296	0.108	0.285
Observations		18659	18659	12462	12462	6197	6197

Notes: The table reports the coefficients on three dummy variables representing three different combinations of origins of fathers and mothers to Israeli born Individuals. The comparison group are individuals born in Israel whose father was born in Europe/America and whose mother was born in Asia/Africa.

Sample includes full-time full-year (FTFY) salaried male workers in 1995.

Odd numbered columns report the crude wage gap.

Even numbered columns report the wage gap conditional on potential experience, school years completed and area of residence

Potential experience was calculated as age-school years completed-6 and we control for a quartic in potential experience.

School years completed are represented by 8 dummy variables constructed from the highest diploma variable.

We control for a full set of dummy variables for each area of residence in the year of the census.

() Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

Table 9a
Origin Related Differences in Father's Religious Practice
Life History Study of Israeli Men (N=1,143)

		Father Wears "KIPPA"	Father Observes Kosher Food
		(i)	(ii)
<i>By Father's Origin</i>			
Father born in Asia or Africa		0.32 (0.03)	0.47 (0.02)
<i>By Parents' Origin</i>			
Father - Asia/Africa	SA	-0.05 (0.15)	-0.22 (0.11)
Mother - Europe/America			
Father - Europe/America	AA	-0.01 (0.09)	-0.37 (0.07)
Mother - Europe/America			
Father - Asia/Africa	SS	0.32 (0.09)	0.13 (0.07)
Mother - Asia/Africa			

Notes: The benchmark group at the top panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America. The benchmark group at the bottom panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America and to a mother who was born in Asia or Africa (AS). The dependent variables are binary variables indicating whether individual's father used to wear a "KIPPA" or whether the individual's father observed eating KOSHER food while the individual was growing up

Table 9b
Origin Related Differences in Individual's Religious Practices
Life History Study of Israeli Men (N=1,129)

		Wears "KIPPA"	Lays "Tfilin"	Observes Kosher Food	Fasts on "Yom Kippur"	Eats Bread on Passover
		(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(vi)	(v)
<i>By Father's Origin</i>						
Father born in		-0.02	-0.04	0.36	0.31	-0.24
Asia or Africa		(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)
<i>By Parents' Origin</i>						
Father - Asia/Africa	SA	-0.12	-0.10	-0.24	-0.14	0.10
Mother - Europe/America		(0.11)	(0.10)	(0.14)	(0.13)	(0.13)
Father - Europe/America	AA	0.03	0.00	-0.29	-0.21	0.21
Mother - Europe/America		(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.08)
Father - Asia/Africa	SS	0.01	-0.04	0.10	0.12	-0.05
Mother - Asia/Africa		(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.08)

Notes: The benchmark group at the top panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America. The benchmark group at the bottom panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America and to a mother who was born in Asia or Africa. The dependent variables are binary variables indicating the individual's self report to five questions regarding his current religious practices.

Table 10
Origin Related Gaps in Number of Children Ever Born to a Woman
Married Women Born Outside of Isreal by Their Own and Spouse's Continent of Origin
Israeli Census, 1983, Micro Files

Variables	Parents to	All Ages		Age 38-45	
		(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)
Husband - Sephardic Wife - Ashkenazi	SA	0.00 (0.07)	0.02 (0.07)	-0.02 (0.09)	0.00 (0.09)
Husband - Ashkenazi Wife - Ashkenazi	AA	-0.73 (0.05)	-0.69 (0.05)	-0.44 (0.07)	-0.44 (0.07)
Husband - Sephardic Wife - Sephardic	SS	1.80 (0.05)	1.81 (0.05)	1.38 (0.07)	1.39 (0.07)
Husband - Ashkenazi Wife - Sephardic	AS (Level)	3.12 (0.04)	3.04 (0.10)	3.18 (0.06)	3.28 (0.10)
Controlling for Birth Cohort		No	Yes	No	Yes
R-squared		0.14	0.14	0.21	0.21
Observations		34287	34287	11606	11606

Notes: This population sample includes all married women, born outside of Israel between 1905 and 1945, married to Israeli Jews who were born outside of Israel as well. We divide the population sample into four groups by mother and spouses' continent of origin: (i) mother born in Asia or in Africa and spouse born in Europe or America (parents to AS); (ii) mother and spouse born in Europe or America (parents to AA); (iii) mother and spouse born in Asia or Africa (parents to SS) and the benchmark group (iv) mother born in Europe or America and spouse born in Asia or in Africa (parents to SA);

() Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

Table 11
Origin Related Differences in the Fraction of Married Women and the
Fraction of Women who Marry Outside their Father's Ethnic Group
Women, Age 30-50[^], Israeli Census 1995 Micro Data Files

		Fraction of Women Currently Married	Fraction Married outside their Father's Ethnic Group
		(i)	(ii)
<i><u>By Father's Origin</u></i>			
Father born in Asia or Africa		0.83	0.19
Father born in Europe or America		0.82	0.23
<i><u>By Parents' Origin</u></i>			
Father - Asia/Africa	SA	0.83	0.43
Mother - Europe/America			
Father - Europe/America	AA	0.83	0.21
Mother - Europe/America			
Father - Asia/Africa	SS	0.84	0.18
Mother - Asia/Africa			
Father - Europe/America	AS	0.81	0.47
Mother - Europe/America			

Notes: We identify married couples by having a common household identification code in 1995. We restrict our sample to individuals reporting being the head of household or the spouse of the head, and are currently married. We drop households with same gender reported for head and spouse. Controls are a full set of dummies for age and highest diploma received.

() Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

[^] We restrict the women sample to age 50 (compared with 55 for men) since, in 1995, women in Israel retired five years earlier than men.

Table 12

**The Gap in Log of Hourly Wages Between Women Born in Israel, by Father and by Both Parents' Origin
Age 30-50, Israel 1995 Census Micro Files**

		(i)	(ii)	(iii)
<i>By Parents' Origin</i>				
Father born in Asia/Africa		-0.320 (0.011)	-0.085 (0.011)	-0.045 (0.010)
<i>Controlling for</i>				
Education, Experience and Location		No	Yes	Yes
Occupation		No	No	Yes
R-squared		0.08	0.26	0.43
Observations		9998	9998	9998
<i>By Father's Origin</i>				
Father born in Asia/Africa	SA	-0.013 (0.048)	-0.021 (0.042)	0.005 (0.037)
Mother born in Europe/America				
Father born in Europe/America	AA	0.138 (0.029)	-0.004 (0.026)	-0.015 (0.025)
Mother born in Europe/America				
Father born in Asia/Africa	SS	-0.198 (0.028)	-0.091 (0.026)	-0.060 (0.024)
Mother born in Asia/Africa				
<i>Controlling for</i>				
Education, Experience and Location		No	Yes	Yes
Occupation		No	No	Yes
R-squared		0.08	0.26	0.43
Observations		9998	9998	9998

Notes: The benchmark group at the top panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America. The benchmark group at the bottom panel is individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe or America and to a mother who was born in Asia or Africa. All individuals are Jewish salaried females working full time and full year in 1995. The first column in each panel reports crude wage gaps. The second column in each panel reports wage gaps conditional on potential experience, highest diploma received and area of residence. The third column in each panel controls for the same set of controls as the second and a full set of dummy variables for each occupation classified by three digits. We added a set of dummy variables for each occupations classified by one digit to control for cases where 3-digit classification is not available. We also added a dummy variable indicating missing occupation. Potential experience was calculated as age-school years completed-6 and we control for a quartic in potential experience. Highest diploma received is represented by 8 dummy variables. We control for a full set of dummy variables for each area of residence in the year of the census.

() Robust standard errors are reported in parenthesis

The figure shows the Sephardic-Ashkenazi wage gaps (and the corresponding confidence intervals) over three generations as measured among FTFY salaried male workers aged 30 to 55 either in 1983 or in 1995. In particular: (i) the gap between immigrants born in Asia/Africa relative to immigrants born in Europe/America (age 30-55 in black and age 26-32 in red) in 1983(ii) the gap between individuals born in Israel whose parents were born in Asia/Africa relative to individuals born in Israel whose parents were born in Europe America (age 30-55 in black and age 26-32 in red) in 1995 and (iii) the gap between individuals born in Israel whose father was born in Israel and their paternal grandfather was born in Asia/Africa relative to their counterparts whose paternal grandfather was born in Europe/America (age26-32 in red) in 1995.

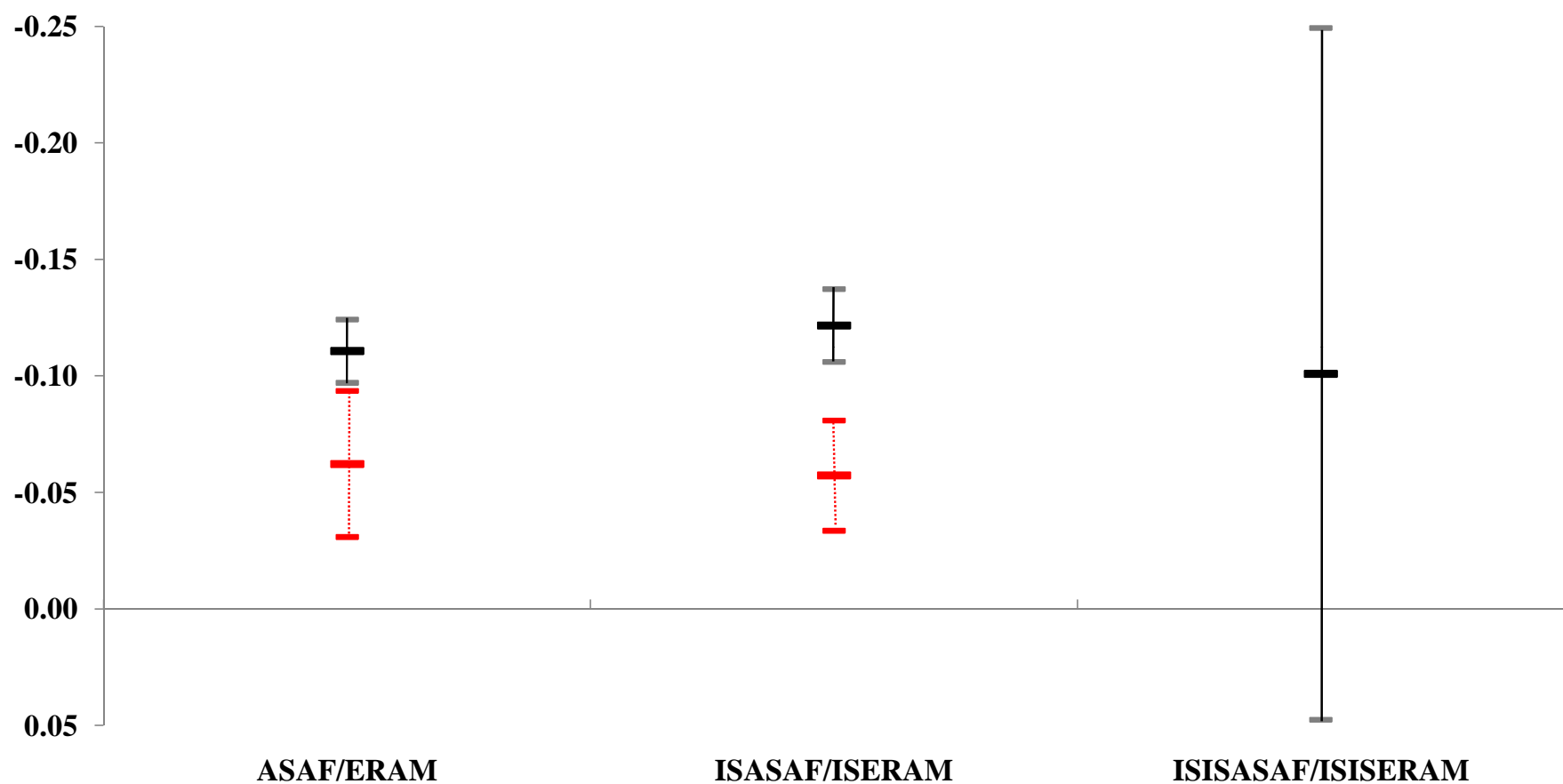


Figure 1

Gaps in the Residuals of Log of Hourly Wages for Three Generations of Immigrants to Israel at age 30-55 (26-32 in red) Measured in 1983 & 1995

The figure divides the Israeli born Jewish population, age 22-65 in 1995, into three sub populations by parents' country of birth, namely, those born in Israel whose: (i) Both parents were born outside Israel (ii) At least one parent was born abroad (iii) Both parents were born in Israel. Those whose parents were born outside of Israel are classified into four groups by parents' continent of birth. The data is taken from the 1995 Census and included is all the Jewish population including recent immigrants. The distinction within the former USSR was done by the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics. The two highlighted groups in the legend are AS and SA which are the focus of the paper and were about 4% of the total Israeli born Jews age 22-65 in 1995.

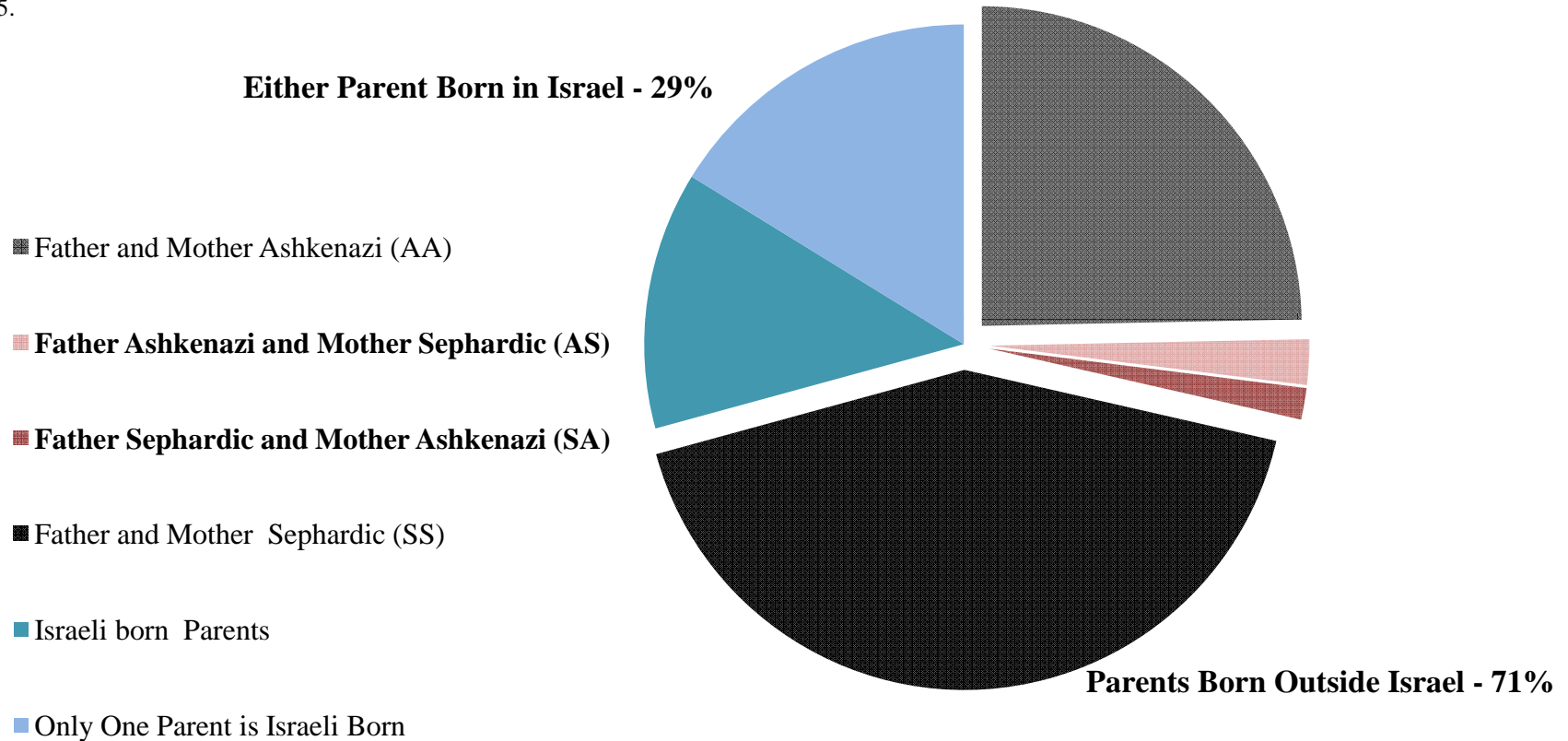


Figure 2

The Composition of the Israeli Born Jewish Population in Israel Age 22-65, in 1995, by Parents Continent of Birth

The figure shows three measures of educational gaps, in 1995, between individuals born in Israel to different mixes of parental origin ages 30 to 55. Educational gaps are presented relative to the comparison group of individuals born in Israel to a father who was born in Europe/America and a mother who was born in Asia/Africa (AS). The three measures of educational attainments are (i) high school graduates with matriculation certificate (BAGRUT) (ii) College and advanced degrees and (iii) number of school years completed).

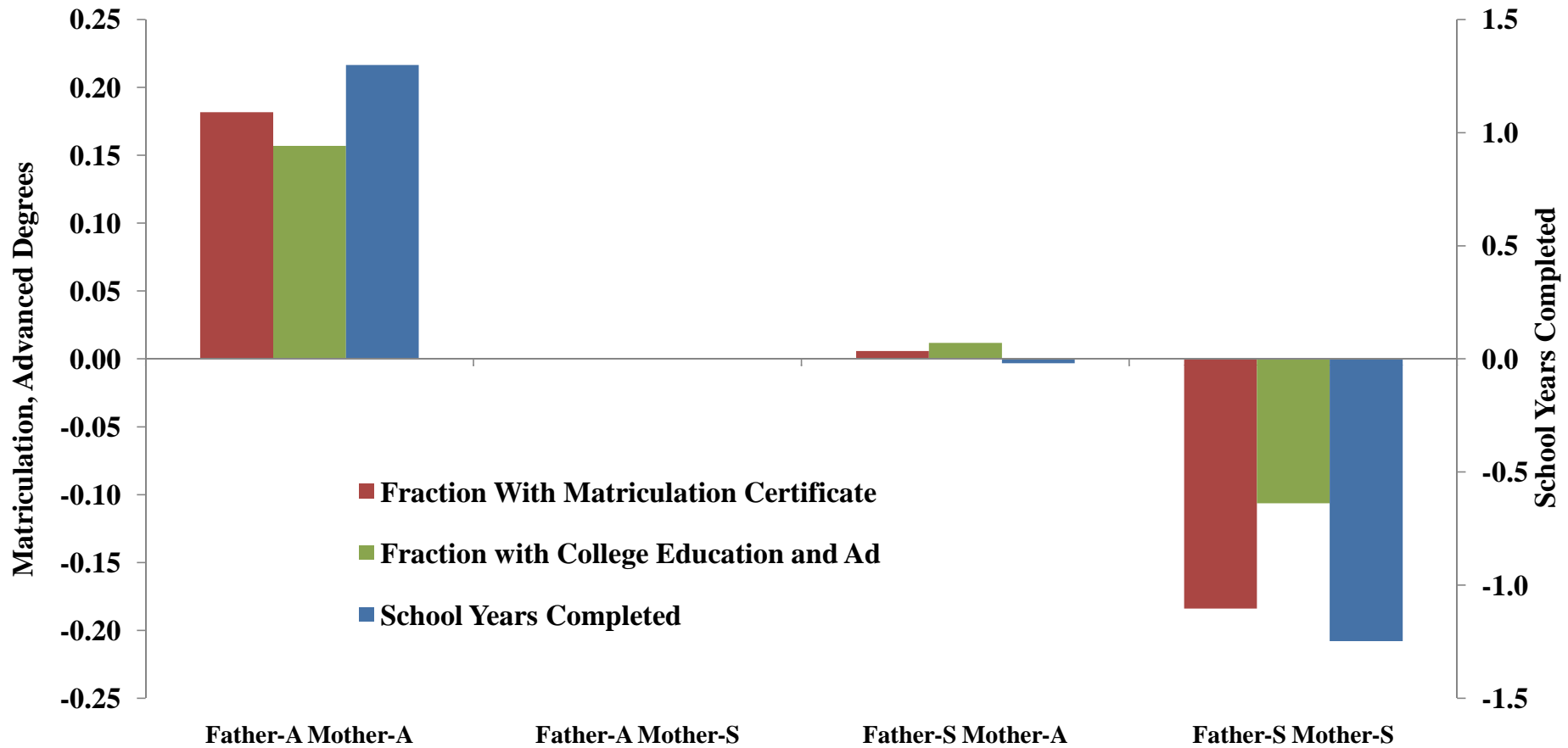


Figure 3
Age-Adjusted Gaps in Educational Attainments by Parents Origin, Aged 30 to 55, Measured in 1995

To proxy family background we generate "synthetic parents". We assume that mothers were 20 to 35 years of age when they gave birth. A "synthetic mother" of a person aged 35 in 1995 has the characteristics of the average married women born between 1925 and 1940, by her continent of origin and her spouse origin. The "synthetic fathers" have the characteristics of those actually married to the "synthetic" mothers. We use five measures to proxy parental background: (i) years of schooling completed, (ii) matriculation certificate, (iii) college education (or advanced degree), (iv) log hourly wages and (v) Socio-Economic index for the quality of the location of residence (created by the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics).



Figure 4a
Outcomes of Married Men (synthetic fathers) by Own and Spouse's Origin

To proxy family background we generate "synthetic parents". We assume that mothers were 20 to 35 years of age when they gave birth. A "synthetic mother" of a person aged 35 in 1995 has the characteristics of the average married women born between 1925 and 1940, by her continent of origin and her spouse origin. The "synthetic fathers" have the characteristics of those actually married to the "synthetic" mothers. We use four measures to proxy parental background: (i) years of schooling completed, (ii) matriculation certificate, (iii) college education (or advanced degree) and (iv) log hourly wages.

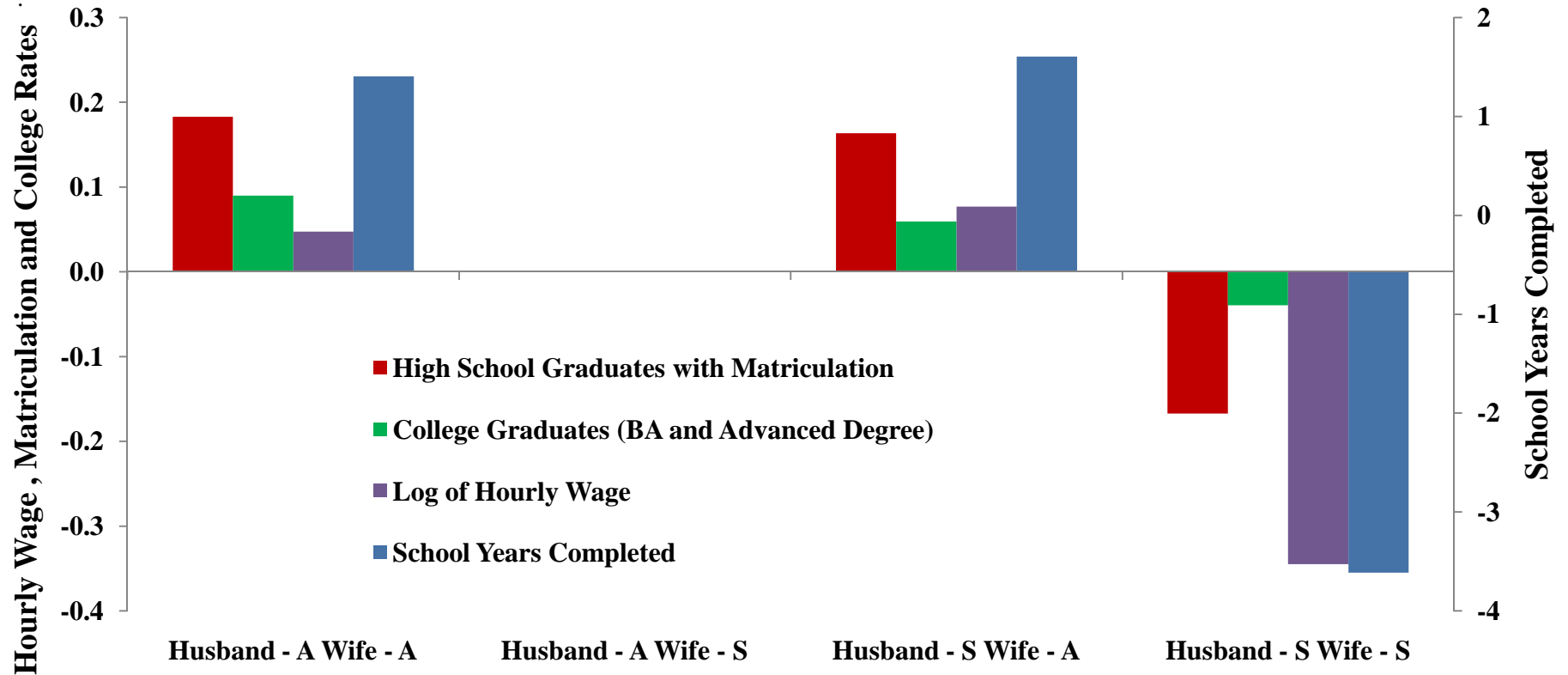


Figure 4b
Outcomes of Married Women (synthetic mothers) by Own and Spouse's Origin

The figure shows outcomes of parents from a sythetic cohort (hourly wage, school years completed and aSocio-Economic Index for Location of Residence) and offspring outcomes (hourly wage) for Jewish male working full time full year in 1995. The comparison group that is omitted are individuals born in Israel whose father was born in Asia/Africa and their mother was born in Europe/America. These individuals were between 30-55 years old in 1995. To proxy family background we generate "synthetic parents" assuming mothers were 20 to 35 when they gave birth. A "synthetic mother" of a person aged 35 in 1995 has the characteristics of the average married woman born in 1925-40 by her continent of origin and her spouse's origin. The "synthetic fathers" have the characteristics of those actually married to the "synthetic" mothers.

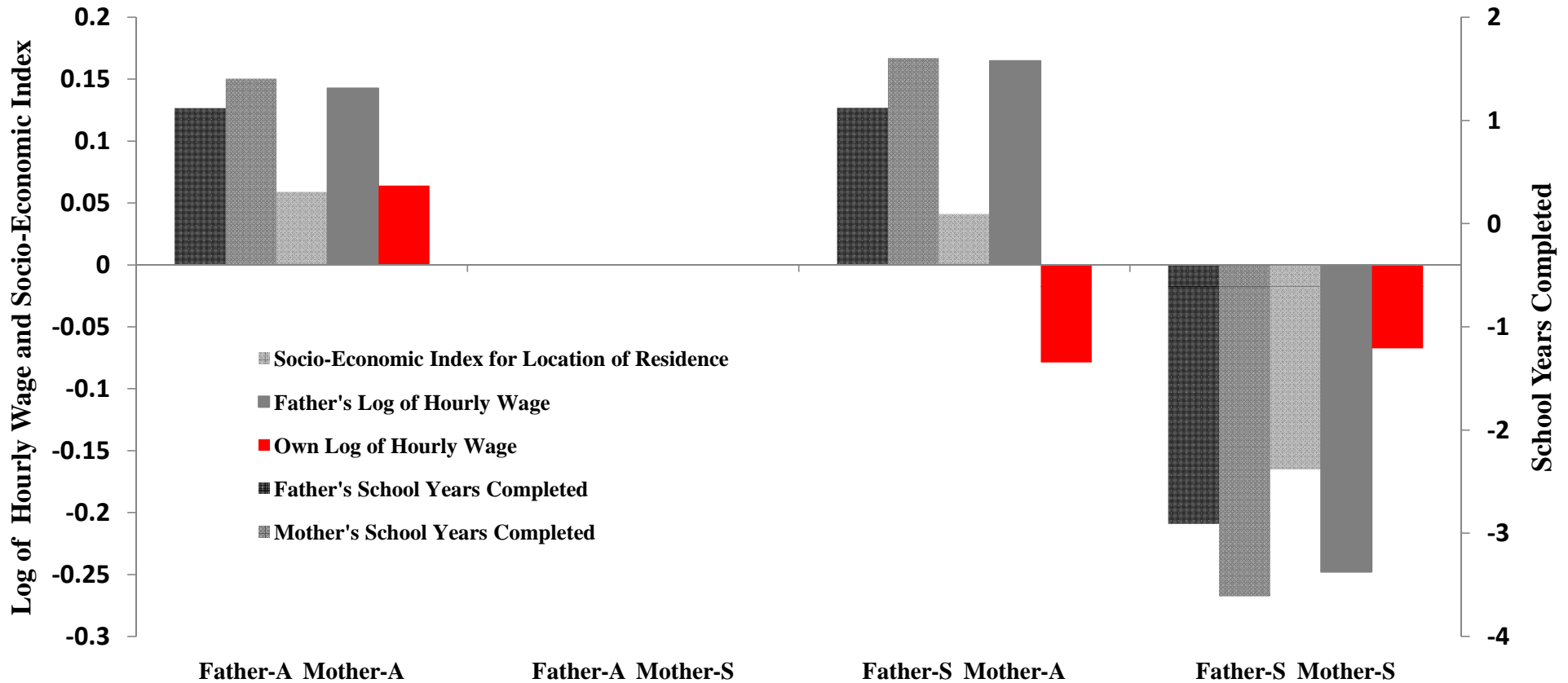


Figure 5a
Outcomes of Parents and their Offspring, Israeli Born Jewish Males in 1995, by mix of Parents Origin

The figure shows educational outcomes gaps and hourly wage gaps for Jewish males working full time full year in 1995, across origin groups defined by father and mother continent of birth. The comparison group that is omitted are individuals born in Israel whose father was born in Asia/Africa and their mother was born in Europe/America. All educational results are coefficients on origin dummy from an OLS regression conditioning on a full set of dummies for age. The hourly wage series presents the coefficients on origin dummies from an OLS regression controlling for a quartic in experience, dummies for educational attainments and location.

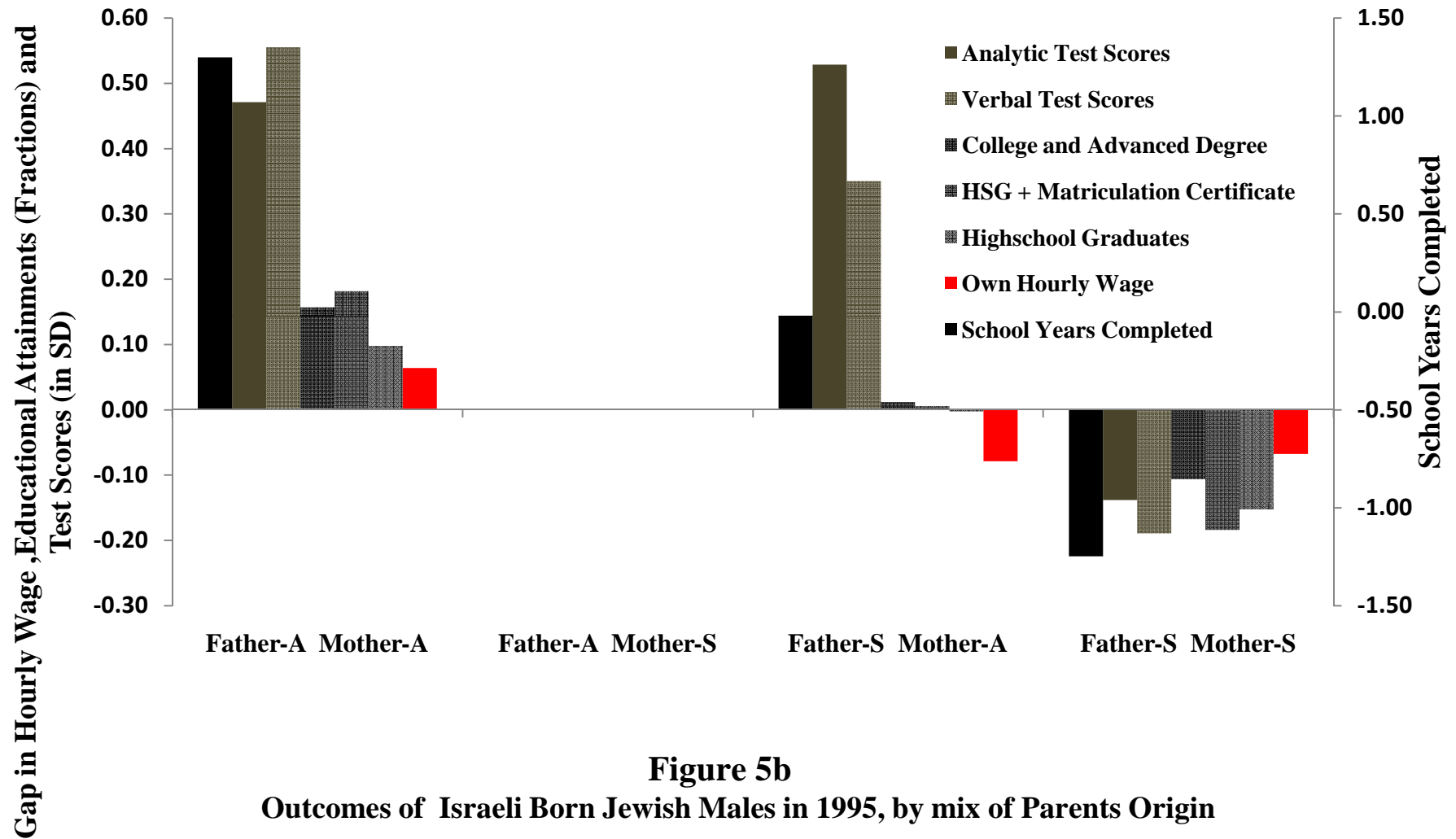


Table A1
Main Waves of Immigration to Israel Before and After the Independence of Israel,
By Country of Origin of the Immigrant (Absolute Numbers)

Time Period	America (i)	Europe (ii)	Africa (iii)	Asia (iv)	Unknown (v)	Total (vi)	Beginning of Period (vii)
Before 5.15.1948	7,754	377,381	4,041	40,895	52,786	482,857	
After 5.15.1948							
1948-1951	5,140	326,786	93,951	237,352	24,395	687,624	716,700
1952-1960	10,228	102,959	145,664	35,286	3,001	297,138	1,404,000
1961-1964	14,841	77,537	115,876	19,525	1,014	228,793	1,911,300
1965-1971	43,165	82,196	37,459	34,718	1,497	199,035	2,239,200
1972-1979	56,068	179,930	12,850	18,138	594	267,580	2,662,000
1980-1989	44,531	71,969	23,411	13,475	447	153,833	3,218,400
1990-1999	37,281	829,289	44,405	44,743	601	956,319	3,717,100
Total by the End of 1999							4,701,600

Notes: The table reports the total number of immigrants to Israel by country of origin and period of immigration. The last two columns (columns v and vi) report the (i) total number of immigrants (the sum of the first five columns) and (ii) The size of the population in Israel at the beginning of the period. The data is broadly divided into the periods before/after 5.15.1948 (The foundation of the state of Israel). The source of the data is the Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS)

1. Included in the table are potential immigrants and tourists who changed their status to immigrants.
As of 1970 excluded from the table are: immigrating citizens
2. Until 1995 the Asian republics of the USSR (former) were included in Europe. As of 1996 they are included in Asia.
3. Included in the table are about 11,000 illegal immigrants and about 19,500 tourists who remained in Israel, and whose continent of residence and period of immigration are not known (Column 5 before 5.15.1948)
4. From 15.5.1948 till the end of 1969 also included in the Unknown Column are non-Jews. As of 1970 they are included according to last continent of residence.

Table A2a
Sample Averages for Males Born in Israel to Parents of Mixed Origin, Age 30-55, Census of 1995

	All Individuals (N=49,346)				FTFY Sample (N=18,659)			
	AA	AS	SA	SS	AA	AS	SA	SS
<u>Distribution</u>								
Fractions	0.38	0.03	0.02	0.58	0.42	0.03	0.02	0.53
Numbers	18530	1424	778	28614	7842	548	293	9976
<u>Marital status</u>								
Married	0.88	0.84	0.84	0.85	0.91	0.88	0.91	0.91
Divorced	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.02
Widowed	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Single	0.07	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.05	0.08	0.06	0.07
<u>Education</u>								
School Years	13.9	12.8	12.7	11.5	14.4	13.1	12.9	11.8
HSD_0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
HSD_1_4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
HSD_5_8	0.03	0.05	0.07	0.12	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.09
HSD_9_11	0.08	0.13	0.12	0.20	0.05	0.10	0.12	0.20
HSG	0.21	0.32	0.30	0.35	0.20	0.31	0.33	0.37
HSGBAG	0.12	0.15	0.15	0.10	0.11	0.15	0.10	0.10
POSTSEC	0.19	0.16	0.15	0.13	0.21	0.18	0.16	0.14
BA	0.22	0.13	0.14	0.06	0.24	0.16	0.13	0.07
AD	0.14	0.06	0.07	0.02	0.16	0.07	0.09	0.02

* Individuals who were not self employed or salaried workers did not work or worked in cooperative, kibbutz or as unpaid family members

Sample Averages for Males Born in Israel to Parents of Mixed Origin, Age 30-55, Census of 1995 (Continued)

	All Individuals (N=49,346)				FTFY Sample (N=18,659)			
	AA	AS	SA	SS	AA	AS	SA	SS
<u>Labor Market</u>								
FTFY	0.68	0.63	0.63	0.57	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Self Employed*	0.18	0.18	0.20	0.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Salaried*	0.62	0.60	0.58	0.56	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Government	0.30	0.28	0.27	0.27	0.29	0.24	0.25	0.25
Potential Experience	22.7	18.6	20.3	20.1	22.2	18.1	20.5	19.8
Log of Hourly Earnings	-----	-----	-----	-----	3.65	3.38	3.31	3.19
<u>Occupations</u>								
Academic Professionals	0.16	0.08	0.08	0.03	0.19	0.11	0.11	0.05
Associate Professionals and Technicians	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.05	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.07
Managers	0.13	0.08	0.11	0.05	0.19	0.14	0.15	0.07
Clerical Workers	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.13	0.14	0.13	0.13
Agents, Sales Workers and Service Workers	0.09	0.13	0.13	0.11	0.09	0.13	0.14	0.12
Skilled Agricultural	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01
Industry, Construction and Other Skilled Workers	0.12	0.20	0.18	0.27	0.14	0.23	0.23	0.35
Unskilled	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.05
Missing Occupation	0.30	0.31	0.30	0.36	0.15	0.11	0.11	0.14

Sample Averages for Males Born in Israel to Parents of Mixed Origin, Age 30-55, Census of 1995 (Continued)

	All Individuals (N=49,346)				FTFY Sample (N=18,659)			
	AA	AS	SA	SS	AA	AS	SA	SS
<u>Locality in 1995</u>								
<u>Three Major Cities</u>	0.24	0.23	0.23	0.17	0.24	0.22	0.24	0.17
Jerusalem	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.09	0.07
Tel Aviv	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.07	0.09	0.10	0.08	0.07
Haifa	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.03	0.10	0.07	0.06	0.03
<u>Localities 2-199K</u>	0.65	0.68	0.68	0.75	0.76	0.78	0.76	0.83
100-199K	0.26	0.31	0.30	0.29	0.28	0.35	0.33	0.31
20-100K	0.29	0.25	0.29	0.32	0.35	0.28	0.32	0.37
2 -20k	0.11	0.11	0.09	0.14	0.12	0.14	0.11	0.16
<u>Rural areas</u>	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.06	-----	-----	-----	-----
Moshav	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.06	-----	-----	-----	-----
Kibbutz	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-----	-----	-----	-----
<u>Other</u>	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03	-----	-----	-----	-----

Table A2b

Sample Averages for Females Born in Israel to Parents of Mixed Origin, Age 30-50, Census of 1995

	All Individuals (N=46,746)				FTFY Sample (N=9,998)			
	AA	AS	SA	SS	AA	AS	SA	SS
<u>Distribution</u>								
Fractions	0.34	0.03	0.02	0.62	0.36	0.03	0.02	0.59
Numbers	15881	1314	735	28816	3583	327	166	5922
<u>Marital status</u>								
Married	0.83	0.81	0.82	0.84	0.76	0.81	0.81	0.80
Divorced	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.11	0.09	0.08	0.09
Widowed	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.01
Single	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.12	0.10	0.10	0.10
<u>Education</u>								
School Years	13.9	12.8	13.1	11.8	14.1	13.1	13.1	12.0
HSD_0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
HSD_1_4	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
HSD_5_8	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.10	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.05
HSD_9_11	0.05	0.09	0.09	0.17	0.04	0.07	0.05	0.14
HSG	0.20	0.29	0.25	0.34	0.20	0.28	0.28	0.38
HSGBAG	0.18	0.22	0.22	0.16	0.21	0.26	0.32	0.23
POSTSEC	0.23	0.18	0.17	0.14	0.17	0.15	0.11	0.12
BA	0.23	0.12	0.16	0.06	0.24	0.15	0.17	0.07
AD	0.09	0.04	0.06	0.02	0.12	0.06	0.04	0.01

* Individuals who were not self employed or salaried workers did not work or worked in cooperative, kibbutz or as unpaid family members

Sample Averages for Females Born in Israel to Parents of Mixed Origin, Age 30-50, Census of 1995 (Continued)

	All Individuals (N=46,746)				FTFY Sample (N=9,998)			
	AA	AS	SA	SS	AA	AS	SA	SS
<u>Labor Market</u>								
FTFY	0.31	0.32	0.32	0.28	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Self Employed*	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Salaried*	0.64	0.61	0.63	0.56	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Government	0.47	0.38	0.38	0.36	0.47	0.39	0.37	0.44
Potential Experience	21.2	18.3	18.6	19.4	21.2	18.1	18.6	19.4
Log of Hourly Earnings	-----	-----	-----	-----	3.33	3.19	3.18	2.99
<u>Occupations</u>								
Academic Professionals	0.16	0.08	0.08	0.03	0.19	0.11	0.11	0.05
Associate Professionals and Technicians	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.05	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.07
Managers	0.13	0.08	0.11	0.05	0.19	0.14	0.15	0.07
Clerical Workers	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.13	0.14	0.13	0.13
Agents, Sales Workers and Service Workers	0.09	0.13	0.13	0.11	0.09	0.13	0.14	0.12
Skilled Agricultural	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01
Industry, Construction and Other Skilled Workers	0.12	0.20	0.18	0.27	0.14	0.23	0.23	0.35
Unskilled	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.05
Missing Occupation	0.30	0.31	0.30	0.36	0.15	0.11	0.11	0.14

Sample Averages for Females Born in Israel to Parents of Mixed Origin, Age 30-50, Census of 1995 (Continued)

	All Individuals (N=46,746)				FTFY Sample (N=9,998)			
	AA	AS	SA	SS	AA	AS	SA	SS
<u>Locality in 1995</u>								
<i><u>Three Major Cities</u></i>	0.25	0.23	0.24	0.17	0.30	0.26	0.25	0.21
Jerusalem	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.09
Tel Aviv	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.07	0.13	0.12	0.11	0.08
Haifa	0.09	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.11	0.06	0.07	0.04
<i><u>Localities 2-199K</u></i>	0.65	0.70	0.68	0.75	0.70	0.74	0.75	0.79
100-199K	0.26	0.31	0.29	0.30	0.26	0.32	0.35	0.32
20-100K	0.29	0.27	0.29	0.32	0.34	0.31	0.25	0.33
2 -20k	0.10	0.12	0.11	0.13	0.10	0.11	0.14	0.14
<i><u>Rural areas</u></i>	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.05	-----	-----	-----	-----
Moshav	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.05	-----	-----	-----	-----
Kibbutz	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-----	-----	-----	-----
<i>Other</i>	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.02	-----	-----	-----	-----